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ABSTRACT

The effect of participation in a series of workshops about citizen involvement in civic affairs on locus of control, life satisfaction and anomia among the aged population in the Piedmont region of North Carolina was investigated, as well as the extent to which certain personal and situational characteristics of respondents were associated with feelings of locus of control, life satisfaction and anomia. The sample, comprised of 111 individuals 60 years of age or older residing in the Piedmont region of North Carolina and drawn from organized groups and clusters of older adults, consisted of five experimental and six control groups. The experimental groups participated in the series of workshops entitled "Action Course in Practical Politics." Controls did not. Pretests and posttests were administered to all subjects. Analysis of the data revealed significant relationships between participants' feelings of anomia, life satisfaction, locus of control and a high percentage of the variables tested. Variables related to all three of the dependent variables were political activity, political knowledge, education, and income. Significantly related to both life satisfaction and locus of control were organizational activity, health and anomia. The variable related to anomia and life satisfaction was housing. Anomia was significantly related to race. Significantly related to leisure activity were anomia and internal-external control. (Author)

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The Influence of a Series of Workshops Related to Citizen Participation in Civic Affairs on Anomia, Life Satisfaction, & Locus of Control Among the Aged Population in the Piedmont Region of North Carolina.

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ABSTRACT

THE INFLUENCE OF A SERIES OF WORKSHOPS RELATED TO CITIZEN PARTICIPATION IN CIVIC AFFAIRS ON ANOMIA, LIFE SATISFACTION AND LOCUS OF CONTROL AMONG THE AGED POPULATION IN THE PIEDMONT REGION OF NORTH CAROLINA

by

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Robert Jackson

The primary purpose of this study was to determine whether participation in a series of workshops on "citizen participation in civic affairs" could influence significantly locus of control, life satisfaction and anomia among the aged population in the Piedmont region of North Carolina. A secondary purpose was to determine the extent to which certain personal and situational characteristics of respondents were associated with feelings of locus of control, life satisfaction and anomia.

The sample consisted of 111 individuals 60 years of age or older residing in the Piedmont region of North Carolina. The sample was drawn from organized groups and clusters of older adults. An effort was made to ensure representiveness in terms of income, education, race, socio-economic status and living arrangements. Participation was voluntary.

The sample consisted of five experimental and six control groups. The experimental groups participated in the series of workshops entitled "Action Course in Practical Politics." The control groups did not. Pretests and posttests were administered to all subjects. Statistical techniques employed included Pearson's product moment coefficient of correlation, least squares means analysis and the t test.

Analysis of the data revealed significant relationships between participants' feelings of anomia, life satisfaction, locus of control and a high percentage of the variables tested. Variables related to all three of the dependent variables were: political activity, political knowledge, education, and income. Significantly related to both life satisfaction and locus of control were: organizational activity, health and anomia. The variable related to anomia and life satisfaction was housing. Anomia was significantly related to race. Significantly related to leisure activity were anomia and internal-external control. The independent variables tested in the study accounted for 78 percent of the variance in anomia scores, 63 percent of the variance in life satisfaction scores and 81 percent of the variance in internal-external control scores.

The major thrust of the study was to determine whether the series of workshops could effect changes in levels of anomia, life satisfaction and locus of control. The t test revealed that no significant changes occurred in levels of anomia or life satisfaction, but there were significant positive changes in internal-external control within the experimental group as compared to the control group. It was concluded that the workshops, content wise, provided input more directly related to internal-external control than to anomia or life satisfaction per se and that for significant change to occur within these two areas, educational programs will need to focus directly upon the specific elements imbedded in these concepts.

The fact that significant changes in internal-external control did occur among participants in the workshops would indicate that internal-external control is not a fully structured product of past experiences and present circumstances. It can be changed. Similarly, it may be possible to effect changes in anomia and life satisfaction among older adults if deliberate efforts are made to address the underlying causes within the framework of the learning situation and sufficient time is made available for change to occur.

THE INFLUENCE OF A SERIES OF WORKSHOPS RELATED TO CITIZEN PARTICIPATION IN CIVIC AFFAIRS ON ANOMIA, LIFE SATISFACTION AND LOCUS OF CONTROL AMONG THE AGED POPULATION IN THE PIEDMONT REGION OF NORTH CAROLINA

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TABLE OF CONTENTS

Page

LIST OF TABLES v

LIST OF APPENDIX TABLES vi

LIST OF FIGURES vii

INTRODUCTION 1

Purpose 1
Background and Need for the Study 2
Limitations 4

CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK AND REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE 6

Introduction 6
Theories of Aging 16
Dependent Variables 28
Independent Variables 51
The Role of Educational Experiences in Effecting Change in Older Adults 64

METHODOLOGY 69

The Research Design 69
Population and Sample 69
Experimental Procedures 71
Instrumentation and Data Collection 73
Analysis of Data 77

RESULTS 79

Profile of Participants 79
Testing the Hypotheses 83

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS 111

Purpose 111
Background and Need for the Study 112
Research Procedures 112
Results and Conclusions 113

IMPLICATIONS 123

RECOMMENDATIONS FOR FURTHER RESEARCH 125

LIST OF REFERENCES 126

TABLE OF CONTENTS (continued)

Page

APPENDICES 137

Appendix A. Appendix Tables 138
Appendix B. Data Gathering Instrument 152

LIST OF TABLES

Page

1. Frequency distribution of respondents by personal and situational characteristics 80

2. Pearson's Product Moment correlation coefficients of independent and dependent variables 84

3. Least squares analysis of the effect of selected personal and situational factors upon feelings of anomia among older adults--pretest level 87

4. Pretest least squares mean scores, anomia, life satisfaction, and internal-external control by personal and situational characteristics of respondents 88

5. Least squares analysis of the effect of selected personal and situational factors upon feelings of life satisfaction among older adults--pretest level 94

6. Least squares analysis of the effect of selected personal and situational factors upon the feelings of internal-external locus of control among older adults--pretest level 98

7. Significant product moment correlations between personal and situational characteristics of respondents and sub-dimensions of the internal-external control scale 101

8. Mean scores anomia, pretest, posttest, variance and t values by experimental and control groups 103

9. Mean scores life satisfaction, pretest, posttest, variance and t values by experimental and control groups 105

10. Mean scores internal-external control, pretest, posttest, variance and t values by experimental and control groups 108

LIST OF APPENDIX TABLES

Page

1. Frequency distribution of respondents' participation in organizations by number and percent 139

2. Frequency distribution of respondents by level of organizational participation by number and percent 140

3. Frequency distribution of respondents' participation in educational activities during the past year by number and percent 141

4. Frequency distribution of respondents by level of educational activity, number and percent 142

5. Frequency distribution of respondents' participation in leisure activities by number and percent 143

6. Frequency distribution of respondents by level of leisure activity participation, number and percent 144

7. Frequency distribution of respondents by occupation prior to retirement by number and percent 145

8. Frequency distribution of respondents' participation in political activities during the past two years by number and percent 146

9. Frequency distribution of respondents by level of political activity, number and percent 147

10. Frequency distribution of responses to questions related to political knowledge by number and percent 148

11. Mean scores "control ideology", pretest, posttest, variance and t values by experimental and control groups 149

12. Mean scores "personal control", pretest, posttest, variance and t values by experimental and control groups 150

13. Mean scores "political control", pretest, posttest, variance and t values by experimental and control groups 151

LIST OF FIGURES

Page

1. The "Social Breakdown Syndrome" 21
2. The "Social Reconstruction Syndrome" 22
3. Social Reconstruction model 66
4. Model for evaluating workshops on "citizen participation in civic affairs" 70
5. Distribution of workshop groups 72
6. Anomia mean scores, pretest and posttest for experimental and control groups 104
7. Life satisfaction mean scores, pretest and posttest for experimental and control groups 106
8. Internal-external control mean scores, pretest and posttest for experimental and control groups 109

INTRODUCTION

Purpose

The primary purpose of this study was to determine whether participation in a series of workshops on "citizen participation in civic affairs" could influence significantly locus of control, life satisfaction, and anomia among the aged population in the Piedmont region of North Carolina.

The workshop series used in the study was developed by the U. S. Chamber of Commerce and has been used for many years as a means of increasing members' participation in the civic affairs of their communities. The question to which this study was addressed was "Can this series of learning experiences actually increase the awareness of the importance of civic participation among the aged and hence significantly influence locus of control, life satisfaction, and feelings of anomia?"

The educational experiences tested in the study offered the participant an opportunity to learn about the importance of participation in local and national civic affairs; interact with peers in discussing problems in the community; reflect on his or her own role in the community; and, acquire some skills and techniques for active participation in civic affairs.

Specifically, this study addressed the following questions:

1. What is the level of personal feelings of locus of control, life satisfaction, and anomia among the subjects chosen for the study?
2. What personal and demographic factors are associated with the current level of feelings of locus of control, life satisfaction, and anomia among the subjects in the study?

3. Can feelings of locus of control, life satisfaction and anomia be changed in a positive direction through participation in a series of structured learning experiences which seeks to involve the participants in decision-making efforts in the workshop and stimulate active participation in their communities and within their age-cohort groups?

Background and Need for the Study

The feelings of loneliness, powerlessness and isolation are perhaps three of the major factors contributing to dissatisfaction with later life for thousands of Americans. The results are depression, anxiety and anomia for many. There is a tremendous need for educational programs to help these individuals cope with the psychological problems of aging.

Studies of diversity among aging populations contribute much space to the analyses of correlates of social psychological variables such as life satisfaction and happiness, social and mental well-being, life adjustment and adaptation, anomia and alienation, morale, and locus of control (Campbell, Converse and Rodgers, 1976; Neugarten, Havighurst and Tobin, 1961; Lawton, 1972; Leonard, 1977; Palmore and Luikart, 1972; Rotter, 1966; Seeman, 1972; Srole, 1956; Thurnher and Pierce, 1975; Wolk and Kurtz, 1975). In these studies and others, researchers have shown significant relationships between these dependent variables and such independent factors as type of housing, organizational affiliations, leisure activities, political affiliation and participation, health, education, income, work satisfaction, age, marital status, religion, race and sex.

This study was designed to measure the present levels of one's social-psychological frame of mind, but with one crucial element that

most other studies have not exercised. While most studies do describe the social-psychological situation of the individual and measure significant correlations of these behaviors, this study purports to affect one's feelings by enhancing positive measures of life satisfaction, internal locus of control, and anomia. It is that positive change through a series of learning experiences to which this study is devoted. Further, it is felt by these researchers that active participation in civic affairs, i.e. increased political awareness and increased civic participation, can stimulate renewed purpose and feelings of utility, contribution and self-direction in one's later years.

Indeed, recognizing the potential for dissatisfaction, powerlessness and isolation among many elderly citizens, there is a need for educational programs to help these individuals cope with the social and psychological problems of aging and reverse negative situations which affect one's social-psychological well-being. The approach of this study was to provide participants interaction with peers in a confortable learning situation on a subject relevant to their political, economic, and social well-being. The study was designed to increase participation in and satisfaction with life, decrease feelings of isolation, despair and alienation and spark new commitments to the larger society.

The assumptions undergirding this study were:

That older adults

1. Desire and can effectively participate in their community's decision-making efforts;
2. Can positively alter their feelings of isolation, despair and powerlessness;

3. Can improve their feelings of life satisfaction through active involvement in the political process; and

That an educational experience in civic affairs

1. Can provide useful knowledge and skills with which to become more active in one's community; and
2. Will provide a learning and growth experience conducive to the psychological strengthening of the individual.

Limitations

The following factors were considered as limitations for the research project:

1. The sample used in the study was selected to represent a cross-section of the aged population in the Piedmont region of North Carolina as regarded socioeconomic status, level of formal education, income level, race, and type of housing. The sample was a purposive sample and participation was voluntary.
2. The time period over which the educational experiences were conducted was seven weeks. This short time period may have limited the amount of affective change that occurred within the participants.
3. The study, by design, measured affective change soon after the completion of the learning experiences. Time and budget restraints precluded the measurement of persistance of change over time.
4. Because of time lapses between completion of the learning experiences and the posttests ranging from less than one week to nine weeks, the opportunity for intervening variables to affect posttest responses was greatly enhanced.

5. Because some of the respondents initially possessed strong positive feelings of life satisfaction, locus of control, and anomia, the "ceiling effect" must be acknowledged as a possible influence on any change.
6. Because of incomplete responses to some items on the pretest and posttest instruments, a number of questionnaires were voided and not included in the analysis.
7. Some of the items on the structured instruments used for data collection may be imbedded in the social reality of many Americans, i.e. some people really might not have control over an inability to make friends; or due to health reasons, old age might not be the best time of their lives (see the questions on the dependent indices in Appendix B).

CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK AND REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

Introduction

At question in this study was the relationship between personal demographic elements and social activity patterns in a sample of older adults, levels of life satisfaction, anomia, and internal-external locus of control, and the changes that can occur after a relevant educational experience. When researching such a complex subject as older adults, a great number of variables must be examined to evolve as clear a profile of the individuals' social-psychological make-up as possible. Many of the variables, in turn, are complex structures that must be fully discussed before relating them to the dependent variables of life satisfaction, internal-external locus of control and anomia.

Indeed, researchers in aging have found many variables related to the above dependent variables (Cavan, 1962; Cumming and Henry, 1961; Cutler and Chiriboga, 1975; Felton, 1976; Lemon, Bengtson and Peterson, 1972; Leonard, 1977; Palmore and Luikart, 1972; Wolk and Kurtz, 1975). This study is an effort to explore further key social-psychological variables that affect levels of adaptation in late life. Further motivation for this study stems from the notion that in such a difficult period as old age when new learning must replace losses of tools for adaptation (position, income, status, role), assessment of the individual's present psychological situation ("knowledges" and "attitudes") seems in order as a first step in knowing how to help him/her cope and grow. In addition, a second step was taken by providing a learning experience to determine whether change can take place and new skills can be developed to assist adaptive behavior.

Adaptation is an interactive process of internal needs and behavioral responses to environmental demands. It is man's act by which adjustments are made that affect capabilities to deal with one's environment. Adaptation in the later years is a complex interaction of social-structural considerations combining with change agents working for and with older adults and the individual older person's own social-psychological perception of self. Atchley (1972) regards adaptation as, "Learning to live in a particular way according to a particular set of values as one changes or as one's culture changes" (p. 207). But the aged person often finds himself/herself in a cultural setting alien to his/her own expectations and moral structure, advanced beyond his/her expertise and rapidly outdistancing his/her willingness to adjust. These conflicts often limit one's opportunities and abilities to continue developing and/or maintaining one's capacities. Life satisfaction is the social-psychological measure of successful adaptation.

In essence, adaptation in late life is a problem of resocialization--a learning of new social expectations. In this sense, adaptation is very closely linked to the socialization process we all face throughout our lives. In this section a discussion of the socialization process in late life will be presented in order to provide conceptual background for a discussion of the theories of aging and the particular dimensions which will be examined in this study. At work in the socialization process of late life are historical dimensions of interactions with self and significant others as well as norms, values and attitudes. In effect the socialization process develops role behaviors either consistent with the individual's expectations or in conflict

with no appropriate substitute model of behavior. Lack of normative expectations often results in anomie, dissatisfaction with life and disaffection with the social system. Against this possible scenario, theories of aging will be presented in an attempt to analyze how the aged adapt and change versus passively accepting their fate.

Socialization in Late Life

According to the Tallmans (no date), "socialization is the process through which people learn, through interaction with each other, to establish, maintain and transform their identities and the resultant patterns of coping and conforming behaviors associated with identities" (p. 4). As the individual becomes integrated into society he/she accepts or is placed into new positions and is then expected to fulfill the normative requirements of those positions. Socialization is a life cycle phenomenon becoming manifest as people move from role to role in their lives. The later years bring new and special socialized roles characterized by Strauss (1969) as a process of "transformation of identity" affected by new outlooks in life, new sets of skills, or a diminishing of skills.

When one looks at age as a dimension of social organization, certain divisions are made along life cycle lines. Age-grading refers to those age-based behavioral expectations and the system developed by a culture to give order and predictability to the life course followed by individuals (Wood, 1971). Such functional guidelines are supported by Parsons, Cumming and Henry, and Merton and provide the foundation for the disengagement theory (to be discussed later in this chapter).

Such age-grading may be a reality as Neugarten and Moore (1968) and Neugarten and Peterson (1957) show in their studies of age-based status systems. However, the activity theorists would support the contention that even though age-grading exists, that is no reason to accept it absolutely and not continue to become involved in non-age-based activities.

Economic status forms the universalistic standard for status differentiation among older adults (Parsons and Shils, 1951; Neugarten and Moore, 1968). Indeed, the time phases of later life have changed as a result of the economic dimensions of mandatory retirement, "early out" options, the leisure cycles of four-day work weeks, strict tax laws concerning maximum earned income and social security benefits and the pressure from below by more technologically proficient workers.

These age-based differences, age graded statuses, and the effects of stigmatization lead the older adult to a change in reference groups (Bengtson, 1970; Ward, 1977). Certainly, reference groups change throughout life, but the retiree's reference groups consist of a psychological and economic mismatch of referents who, despite Rose's (1965) argument for the observed subculturation in old age, refuse to form a collective consciousness (Streib, 1965; Rosow, 1973, Trela, 1971). Rosow (1973) points out that, for the first time in one's life, one has no age-appropriate reference group. Although senior citizens groups form, there is little evidence that group consciousness is manifested in an older adult's identity.

Because there is a lack of group consciousness, the development of age-based norms is an interesting phenomenon. As a person ages, he/she

will inevitably hear the phrase, "Act your age." This is not idle remonstration. Rather it prescribes overt normative expectations of behavior. Individuals and society will evaluate and sanction positively if certain expected behaviors are performed. Neugarten et al. (1965) and Wood (1971), among others, have shown substantial consensus on age-based norms for behavior. Neugarten et al. (1965) report that older respondents seem more aware of the relevance and validity of age-appropriate behavior than do young people.

Although the above research indicates that there may exist age-based norm expectations, Bengtson (1973) asks the questions: "Does the content of norms differ in middle and older age? Are there specific expectations associated with the age status of being elderly?" (p. 23). The problem addressed by this study becomes extremely pertinent at this point. It seems that there is minimal evidence that specific content-based norms do exist for older adults different from those of other adults. Hence the basic values in our culture probably provide for the role expectations and norms for all citizens (Havighurst and Albrecht, 1953). Following the study of Havighurst and Albrecht, other researchers (Clark, 1967; Wood, 1971) have devoted much time concluding "that there are very few norms regarding appropriate or inappropriate behavior specific to old age . . . the norms that have been identified have to do with maintaining economic independence, health, family and religiosity" (Bengtson, 1973, p. 24). These norms are the same as those of the middle years.

Hence, as the adult reaches later life, having been socialized by the social system within which we all live, he/she perceives through his/her

new reference group the need to perform certain roles, but has no definite, clear-cut obligations of appropriate behavior. At this point, Durkheim's (1947) concept of anomie can become manifest. Indeed, as Burgess (1960) and Rosow (1967) presented in their discussions of "roleless roles," this normlessness places the aged in a weakened position:

> . . . The norms provide no set of expectations that effectively structure an older person's activities and roles and abstract his pattern of life. . . . The anomaly for the aged is that with amorphous norms, there are few criteria for conformity or deviance, for success or failure. Hence, there are few bases for allocating either rewards or punishments. . . . This in itself is a significant discontinuity in life that intensifies the weakness of motives for becoming old. It also heavily underscores the fact that the social consequences of older people's performance are relatively insignificant and that the society has little stake in their attitudes or behavior (Rosow, 1973, pp. 39, 40).

Other recent research corroborates Burgess' contention of a roleless age-based society (Bengtson, 1973; McNall, 1975; Shanas et al., 1968) and points to an increased potential for uncertainty and alienation. The concept of anomie has been used by social gerontologists in an attempt to refer to older adults' normless role expectations. Leonard (1977) has used the psychological counterpart of anomie, "anomia," to analyze the social psychological variables present in an older person's role performance. Anomia refers to the undermining (normless deterioration) of an individual's sense of social solidarity (MacIver, 1950; Reisman, Glaser and Denny, 1956; Srole, 1956). As Leonard (1977) states, most researchers, attempting to operationalize this psychological antecedent of disorganized role identity, have found that "anomia varies with socioeconomic status, class identification,

age, social isolation, occupational mobility, and religious preference" (p. 304). Clinard (1964) argues: "Differential access to economic success goals, combined with a uniform expectation of success, results in anomia among those persons with the least opportunity to achieve such success" (Leonard, 1977, p. 304).

These findings are consistent with other recent studies (Palmore and Luikart, 1972; Spreitzer and Snyder, 1974) and further validate the notion that socioeconomic status is the primary determinant of both role identity and life satisfaction in late life. Leonard (1977, p. 309) summarizes his research by noting: 1) the "direct relationship between age and anomia, that is, anomic responses were more characteristic of the age cohorts over 60 than below;" 2) the elusive nature of monetary success, power, and prestige among the elderly; and 3) the "lack of access to the means of achieving culturally worthwhile goals." He concludes by pointing to the saliency of social class components relating to anomia and the location of position in the social structure as having "enormous ramifications" in the role concept of the older adult.

Hence, we return to a role theory concept of position as a primary determinant in the role specific expectations and behaviors of the older adult. The social system and the socialization process provide for the functional preparation for the various roles in life. From the research, it is reasonable to state that the anomic condition of many older adults (Leonard, 1977; Meier and Bell, 1959), the low levels of life satisfaction (Maddox, 1963; Neugarten, Moore and Lowe, 1965), and the lack of age-based group consciousness (Rosow, 1973; Streib,

1965; Trela, 1971) are direct results of socialized expectations and the imbalance of economic exchange.

Since the socialization process for many has failed to prepare older adults for new, unfamiliar, and often alien roles, it seems appropriate to examine the institutional base of such legitimated inequity. The noteworthy idea here is the lack of "institutional provisions" for successful adaptation to growing old (Bengtson, 1973). Rosow (1967) calls this lack of preparation for the institutionalized separation of age-based groups a major insult to old age in our society.

How does this institutionalized split occur? What are the elements of legitimation that permit the "bureaucracy" and, indeed, most of society to accept the normless state of retirement? Peter Blau (1964) sees the core of legitimate social order as the system of values and norms of social control and compliance. Sanctions provide the judgmental rulings on positive or negative role behaviors and are based on "mediating values" internalized through the socialization process. By the citizens having voiced an historical and collective approval of the social security system, having accepted (ostensibly) the mandatory retirement age of 65 and its variations, and having granted authority to the bureaucracy for implementing the entire system of distribution, society and especially older adults have become compliant upon a system with no necessary expectation of current reciprocity. In other words, the older adult has reached age 60 or 65, having produced and contributed his share to the national economy, and retirement is offered as a means of functional remuneration.

Retirement brings, instead, a pseudo-freedom and a period of adjustment. This lack of reciprocity brings forth the questions: What are the institutional desserts forthcoming from the authority structure? Will the returns from retirement reach anywhere close to the invested time, energy, and money of a person's life? Power in the bureaucracy to force compliance is generated by a consensual institutionalization of the value system. By not providing new, alternative means of reciprocity, the legitimation of age-based normlessness of the aged is reinforced. In essence, status quo is maintained, thus ensuring a roleless end to one's life with increasing dependency on the organization that is controlling the contractual basis of the system, i.e., social security and mandatory retirement. (It will be interesting to note future research as it related to the change in the mandatory retirement age.)

Related to the process of adaptation, the necessary facilities and resources are typically controlled and the day-to-day support systems become increasingly more difficult to gain access to (Blau, 1955). Blau (1955, pp. 62-64) elaborates that ultimate source of institutionalized obligations and thus of managerial power is the organization's resources that enable it to buy the services of workers and to make them dependent on them for their livelihood, the degree of independence being contingent on the worker's investment.

Authority is based on voluntary compliance; and, indeed, the value system has been altered sufficiently to honor the bureaucracy's right to rule. This active and consensual confirmation and promotion of social patterns of aging and the accompanying stereotypes and myths

provide a real dilemma for the aged person. Instead of treating them individually, our society institutionally blocks them into myth-laden positions of perceived irreversible mental and physical decline, unable to continue learning, and incapable of performing their work role with efficiency and precision. They are often treated as if they have nothing more to contribute and thus should only receive rewards commensurate with present conditions. This absolute lack of normative reciprocity and unequal rate of exchange provides for much possible role conflict in later years. In essence, the system is providing negative sanctions for growing old and these value-based judgments create other unjust role identity problems in later life (Bengtson, 1973; Leonard, 1977; Ward, 1977).

The above discussion represents some of the sociological problems and implications of aging in American society. Researchers are at odds with each other and images of aging become unfounded myths. Nevertheless, it is hoped that one can possibly understand the complexity of socialization and adaptation in late life. These conceptual process systems are functioning elements within and without man that must be controlled by man for his own well-being. The older individual finds himself with a changed series of demographic inputs with which to enter such an interactive process. Factors such as income, health, marital status, and networks of friends and family all have significant impact on capacities to manage one's own well-being.

The next part of this chapter will discuss various theories of aging and their respective theoretical positions concerning the process of aging in our social system. While the thesis of this study is not to test any one theory directly, the motivations for the study have

roots from three different theories: Activity, Exchange and Social Reconstruction. Following a review of the theoretical literature is a discussion of the independent and dependent variables in this study and their specific relationship to older adults. Concluding this chapter is a section on the role of educational experiences in effecting change in older adults.

Theories of Aging

The literature in social gerontology cries out for synthesis. The early theories of "Activity" and "Disengagement" neither fully describe the problems nor adequately prescribe possible solutions for the psychosocial and economic situation of many older adults. Newer social system analyses have been postulated such as the "Social Breakdown Syndrome" of Zussman (1966) which was adapted by Kuypers and Bengtson (1973) into the "Social Reconstruction Syndrome" and the "Exchange" model of Homans (1961) and Blau (1964) adapted by Dowd (1975). These models come much closer to the micro/macro sociological approaches necessary for a fuller understanding of the elderly's social situation and self-perception.

Whereas the Disengagement theorists observe and defend the aged's social-psychological and economic withdrawal from society, the Activity theorists support continued effort and involvement throughout the life cycle. The Social Reconstruction Syndrome (SRS) and the Exchange models explain more fully and critically the social interaction processes working to create an older person's age-appropriate behavior pattern in our society. These latter two theories also prescribe change mechanisms with which older adults can design or reestablish

roles and behavior patterns of their own choice, hence affecting their well-being.

The Disengagement theorists view aging as the functionally designed mutual withdrawal of both society and older individual from each other. In this developmental process outlined by Cumming and Henry in Growing Old (1961), the individual becomes more self-oriented and seeks decreased social interaction. Disengagement becomes institutionalized and social equilibrium is maintained by releasing the older individual from old roles and statuses, thereby providing a place for younger and ostensibly more power-efficient individuals/workers. In other words younger people should now have the right and function to replace the old people for the general good of all. This is based on the younger person's technologically specialized capacities and commitment to achieve. Talcott Parsons views the new mechanism for recruitment and retirement from social roles as a social consensus.

The Disengagement theorist views this mutual withdrawal as voluntary and psychologically adjusted. The assumption in this theory is that such withdrawal frees the individual to redesign his normative behavior rather than facing the oftentimes unwelcome, uncomfortable normative role expectations of others. The disengaged individual can now focus on self, conserve his ego-energy and adapt behavior patterns which support his psychological well-being and self-concept (Atchley, 1972; Bengtson, 1971; Neugarten, Havighurst and Tobin, 1961; Kutner, 1962). The inverse of this mutual withdrawal is the forced disengagement institutionalized through mandatory retirement. It is often the case that individuals' work skills and efficiency have not declined and

disengagement from the work place and usual role behaviors is not desirous. From this unilateral, "functionally necessary" move, society can often alienate and negatively affect morale, role concept and self-esteem. Oftentimes, the balance in adaptive behavior that is expected never materializes. Rather, dissatisfaction, abnormal neuroses and rolelessness occur (Rose, 1964; Rosow, 1967).

The Activity theorists postulate that life satisfaction is greater with greater amounts of social interaction. By not viewing the aging process as a means for distributing social position, but as an ever expanding process of continuity and change, the Activity theory provides a rationale for continued personal growth (Cavan, 1962; Havighurst, 1963; Havighurst and Albrecht, 1953; Lemon, Bengtson and Peterson, 1972). In Activity theory, role identity emerges as paramount to satisfaction and well-being. Indeed, Havighurst (1963), Cottrell and Atchley (1969), and Riley and Foner (1968) cite middle-age role models as vitally important to the active older adult. This optimistic theory purports that denial of age-appropriate behavior is important and that reassessment of self and developing new patterns of growth can best emerge through active interaction with society rather than succumbing to disengaged, role-diffused passivity.

Both theories, however, eventually concur that increased age is characterized, whether voluntarily or unilaterally imposed, by a generalized decrease in social interaction with the total community. Because Activity theorists believe that the aged have been unilaterally forced into a change of roles, only through a pluralistic group structure can the aged effectively achieve social role reorganization (Rose,

1965). Trends toward an aged subculture indicate a significant, self-conscious interaction of the aged among themselves rather than with other age groups, even though the focus of such groups as the Gray Panthers is on total community involvement. Mannheim (1952) saw this "subculturation" as a generational dynamic based on the interplay of demographic facts (age, cohort effects, sex, socioeconomic status) and social meaning (historical consciousness arising from socio-political events). Mannheim's perspective led to a belief that age strata consciousness is an active change producing element in society. His theory of "generational units" (common socioeconomic, political and cultural relationships among a group organized to change that relationship) is valuable in understanding age-related social change, but it and Rose's notion of subculturation are only partial indications of the impact of social structural dynamics at work affecting social change in late life.

Kuypers and Bengtson (1973) have adopted, from a general psychiatric model of Zussman (1966), an analysis of aging based on role theory, normative expectations and competencies in fulfilling those expectations and labeling theory. Zussman's "Social Breakdown Syndrome" (SBS) suggests that "an individual's sense of self, his/her ability to mediate between self and society, and his/her orientation to personal mastery are functions of the kinds of social labeling and valuing that he/she experiences in aging" (Kuypers and Bengtson, 1973, p. 181). Kuypers and Bengtson state that social structural elements of norms and roles provide a negative condition in which the aging are confronted with ill-defined goals, weak role models, and passive behavior

patterns. The consequence is a "susceptibility" and "vulnerability" to "external sources of self-labeling." This results in a psychological weakening in an individual's ability to adapt and self-direct his/her life. Hence, many elderly become disenchanted, roleless, groupless, disorganized, and disintegrated (Bengtson, 1970; Maddox, 1966; Riley and Foner, 1968; Rosow, 1967).

The SBS theory and Kuypers and Bengtson's adaptation are a reaction to a social system which tends to measure "worth" of the individual through social utility. For the aging individual this level of measurement, which has been historically valued and expected, provides a potentially negative evaluation. Indeed, because of the very fact that our society is youth-oriented, production-efficient-oriented and death-denying, the older adult is confronted with conditions not very conducive to self-worth.

There are seven stages in Zussman's model of negative psychological functioning. While this model was developed for use with mental illness, it was adapted by Kuypers and Bengtson and applied to older adults. The seven stages are shown in Figure 1.

With the older individual's observed lack of clear role expectations, diminished reference groups, and inconsistent normative feedback, the social system has established a condition wherein the older adult might receive "weakened inner standards." This new condition provides the opportunity for external forces to enter and prescribe new dependent roles and expectations. For example, industry labels many older adults as too old to work, too untrained in their present position, or too old to retrain. In other words, the elderly are often

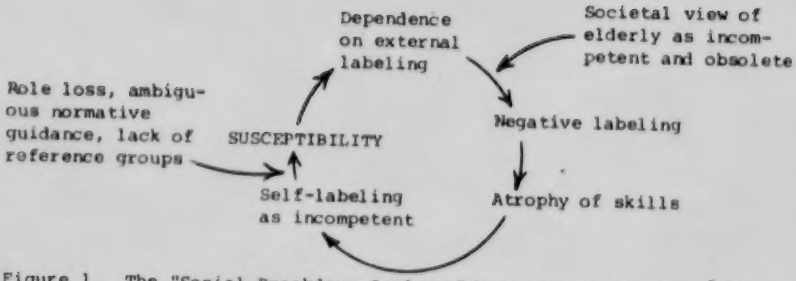
Dependence on external labeling
Societal view of elderly as incompetent and obsolete
Role loss, ambiguous normative guidance, lack of reference groups
SUSCEPTIBILITY
Negative labeling
Self-labeling as incompetent
Atrophy of skills

Figure 1. The "Social Breakdown Syndrome" (Kuypers and Bengtson, 1973, p. 190)

labeled as incompetent in order to satisfy the demands made by the socioeconomic system (Bennett and Eckman, 1973; Clark, 1967; Cowgill and Holmes, 1972; Ward, 1977). Social services then enter and prescribe health care plans, provide basic meal plans, and design new housing for the aging subculture. While some of these social services are extremely beneficial and necessary, the negative labeling continues by implying that the elderly cannot manage their health, food, housing, transportation, economics, etc. That is, negative stereotypes are produced which then serve as negative role models for the aged.

Kuypers and Bengtson (1973) carry the logic further and describe how many elderly develop the totally dependent role that was prescribed for them, forget about their positive coping skills that got them through life, and now accept their fate as "sick and incompetent." Following the logic of the theory, each state feeds off the others in a circular feedback loop such that once caught in the web of negative labeling, the individual is rendered progressively less competent and more worthless.

The SBS is a negative portrait of much of the aged's social reality. The Social Reconstruction Syndrome (SRS) is a social psychological model for developing new role behaviors in late life, hence changing lives and lifestyles and becoming more internally controlled rather than externally manipulated. For Kuypers and Bengtson, the SRS represents a change model designed to provide new options for individuals such that the rest of their lives will be creative, productive, respected and valuable to themselves and society. The SRS calls for the development of new competencies to deal with the social condition in which older adults find themselves. The SRS is also designed as a feedback loop with various inputs coming from outside the circle (Figure 2).

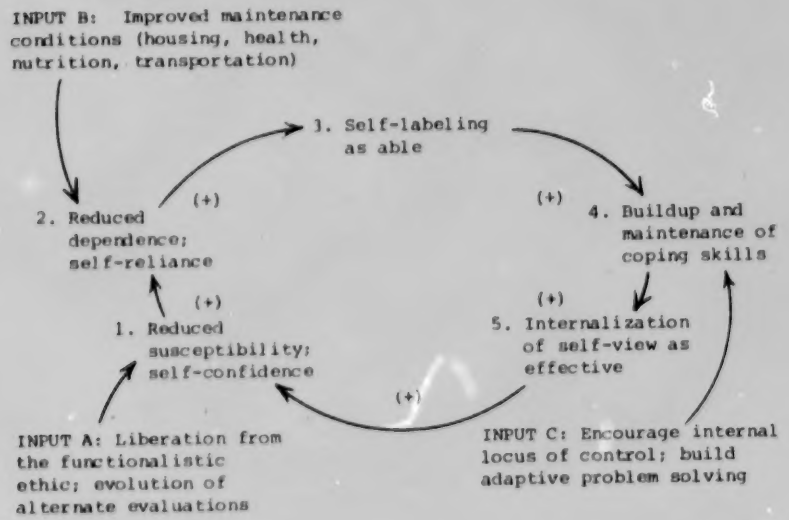
INPUT B: Improved maintenance conditions (housing, health, nutrition, transportation)
1. Self-labeling as able
2. Reduced dependence; self-reliance
(+)
(+)
4. Buildup and maintenance of coping skills
(+)
(+)
1. Reduced susceptibility; self-confidence
5. Internalization of self-view as effective
(+)
INPUT A: Liberation from the functionalistic ethic; evolution of alternate evaluations
INPUT C: Encourage internal locus of control; build adaptive problem solving

Figure 2. The "Social Reconstruction Syndrome" (Kuypers and Bengtson, 1973, p. 197)

By reduced susceptibility, Kuypers and Bengtson mean that "efforts must be made on an individual level to liberate the person from the dominant social view that worth is contingent on his/her performance in economic, productive social roles" (1973, p. 199). This implies a new reliance on more creative, expressive activities, a new reliance on modern ethics and values and life meanings (Kuypers and Bengtson, 1973; McClusky, 1974; Moody, 1976). It means that the individual will have to reduce his/her levels of dependency on the social system by maintaining previous levels of competence or developing new post-dependency competencies. This kind of new role change is supported by notions in exchange theory that call for a new balancing of relationships.

As discussed by Thibault and Kelley (1959) and Homans (1961), exchange theory deals with a system of costs and rewards. In every interaction people will engage in a bargaining exercise, each attempting to maximize their chance to achieve personal goals. The cost of this interacting process, whether in a dyadic or group situation, is the degree of effort, value or loss of power. The exchange theorist postulates that if the exchanging partners "profit" from their interaction (profits - rewards - costs), they will continue such a transaction. Involved in this profit position is an acceptance of several norms which control the reciprocal role behavior. These norms require a control of behavior, an order of preference in reactions, and the elimination of roles. The success of the interaction is based on consensus, a status system, and role differentiation (Thibault and Kelley, 1959).

From this perspective, a power position is developed when an imbalance is formed in the control, status, or role. When relating this to the aged and their exchange relationship with society, Peter Blau (1964) might well have intended to include the aged and their exchange relationships to society when he stated: "Whoever commands services that others need and who is independent of any at their command attain power over others by making the satisfaction of their need contingent on their compliance" (Dowd, 1975, p. 592). With the exchange paradigm, we see the aged and their decreased social interactions as "the eventual result of a series of exchange relationships in which the relative power of the aged vis-a-vis their power resources (money, social position, approval, and knowledge) is the humble capacity to comply" (Dowd, 1975, p. 592).

Dowd (1975) has adapted Emerson's (1962) "balancing operations" into a model of how older adults could equalize their exchange ratio with society:

1. Withdrawal - the disengaged person relinquishes his previous role and assumes a reduced interest in the exchanging partner's rewards.

2. Extension of power network - the older person cultivates new activities which increase the rewards based on a more equal comparison level (Thibault and Kelley, 1959) of rewards and costs.

3. Emergence of status - older persons exercise new options by redeveloping and/or increasing their power resources (skills, moral leadership, family leader).

4. Coalition formation - realization by more powerful partners that they are being denied (by the newly powerful aged) the resources to fulfill their goals. A coalition is formed among more equally matched partners.

Especially relevant at this point are Dowd's second and third operations. In Kuypers and Bengtson's model as with Dowd's, the older adult must redefine his/her roles, redesign behavior patterns and seek new status with new power-related skills.

Next in Kuypers and Bengtson's model is the step of "self-labeling as able." This is a result of the individual having developed new role competencies and independence within the social system. This is enhanced by the individual's recognition that his/her own evaluation is just as important as that of society's. For one to become able, it would help for the individual to define himself as able and project that image. Indeed, survival in this society is a credit to many people's self-concept. Adaptation to an ambiguous environment serves as ample evidence of an individual's ability to build ego strength.

As one changes roles and develops ego strength for the new role, Kuypers and Bengtson recognize the importance of "encouraging internal locus of control" and the "efforts to build adaptive, problem-solving strengths." These steps are closely aligned with Dowd's third and fourth balancing operations. Indeed, the individual must recognize that he/she can and must make decisions that affect his/her own live. They cannot be content to passively accept the will of others. Much research has been conducted on locus of control and the consensus is that internally controlled individuals (those who have a strong belief that they can control their own destiny) are more likely to

1) Be more alert to those aspects of the environment which provide useful information for his/her behavior
2) Take steps to improve his/her environmental condition
3) Place greater value on skill or achievement reinforcements and be generally more concerned with his/her ability, particularly his/her failures

4) Be resistive to subtle attempts to influence him/her (Rotter, 1966, p. 25).

In the SRS the individual strengthens his/her power relationships, reduces external controls over his/her life, maintains some old and develops new coping skills, and internalizes self-view as effective, thus enhancing self-confidence. In the SRS those who control the decision-making and who have exerted their power over the aged must relinquish that control (along the lines expressed in Dowd's fourth balancing operation). At that juncture, the older adults would be able to define their own situation and assert their demands thereby reaching distributive justice. This could initially call for social workers, council on aging administrators, nursing home administrators and many others to share responsibilities with the clients themselves; then turn over full responsibility to the older adults. Only when reduced dependency, increased internality and increased power ratios are manifested in actual decision-making authority will there be a fuller social reconstruction in the social reality of the aged.

Society as presently structured has a tremendous investment in the status quo. For major change to take place such as that suggested above, there must be developed a stronger support group for age group autonomy. If one believes that achieving Dowd's fourth level of balancing operations and completing Kuypers and Bengtson's circular process are desired ends, legitimation of such radical models must evolve. As Kuypers and Bengtson (1973) say: "Self-government, resident directorship, political advocacy and aging groups' consciousness are all part of the beginning vocabulary" (p. 196). The older adults have

to believe in themselves as autonomous citizens existing in a social structure organized to control their lives. Those who support change for the elderly can use the SRS as a theoretical model with which to rationalize new programs and directions, new interventions and strategies for growth.

In conclusion, further support for the model presented by the SRS and Exchange comes from Howard McClusky (1974). He sees successful aging as a balance between the "loads" on one's life and the "power" that individuals can muster to cope with the load. For McClusky, the demands placed upon the elderly (loads such as rolelessness, normlessness, and disutility) place the individual in a weakened state. In McClusky's equation the "margin" in one's life equals the loads divided by the power. Hence, because societal demands can be so constraining, one must develop new power (resources, abilities, possessions, positions, allies, compassion, joy) to provide for a more equitable margin. Margin, then, serves as the reserve strength, the vital difference with which to meet unpredictable emergencies, meet potential crises of late life, and to provide a wider range of options. Reducing load means increasing power so that margin is manifested in new strength of ego and role.

SRS and Exchange are optimistic models of growth in the later years. Their social systems analysis provides a realistic view of change options for many older adults. The individual must realize his/her potential, develop new skills and recall old ones, and make a decision to control the rest of his/her life. The goal is to achieve a new balance in internal-external locus of control, a new balance in

cost/reward relationships, reach a new balance of power over the demands placed upon the individual, and gain a renewed hopeful perspective on one's self and his/her role in society.

This study was designed to assist in building and maintaining coping skills which could be used in the cycle of the SRS. More specifically, by providing skills and techniques for informal civic involvement and by encouraging participants about their potential for dealing effectively with their own affairs, it was hoped that adaptive problem solving capabilities would be enhanced. It was hypothesized that by enhancing levels of internal locus of control and life satisfaction and lowering levels of anomia, an individual would gain more self-confidence and self-reliance. With this renewed ego strength, the individual could then enter the cycle affecting a new balance with the social system and reconstruct a stronger role identity as one who can effectively participate in the community.

The following discussions of dependent and independent variables will show how the learning experience was to affect the individual and, in turn, how this change would affect measures of well-being in late life.

Dependent Variables

Because the focus of this project was on measuring correlates of present states of well-being and examining correlates relevant to changing behavior and adaptation patterns, the rationale of the choice in dependent variables must be expanded and clarified. Empirical research is an exercise in studying relationships and explaining

behavior. The dependent variables chosen for this study represent well-researched and documented indices for researching late life behavior.

Two of the dependent variables--Anomia (Srole, 1956) and Life Satisfaction (Neugarten et al., 1961)--were chosen because they represent a measure of affective sense-of-belonging, hopefulness and satisfaction in late life. The third dependent variable--Internal-External Scale (Rotter, 1966))--was chosen because it represents two facets of an individual's self: 1) the perceived feeling of control (or lack of control) over one's interactions with generalized others and the larger social environment, and 2) the generalized expectancies for change in that individual's life. In other words, one can measure the individual's level of I-E and one can use internal control as a tool for positive adaptive behavior as in the Social Reconstruction and Exchange models.

Closely related to these dimensions and implicit in an understanding of them is the social psychological variable, alienation. Alienation in general is "a negative form of involvement in a social system; an individual is present within, cognizant of or somehow implicated by the system although he perceives that he cannot fulfill his goals or provide the outcomes he values" (Rosenstock and Kutner, 1967, p. 398). As Dean (1961) pointed out in his research in alienation, there have been numerous possible correlates of alienation: "apathy, authoritarianism, conformity, cynicism, hoboism, political apathy, political hyperactivity, prejudice, personalization in politics, privitization, psychosis, regression and suicide" (p. 753).

It appears that alienation is a multidimensional concept drawing from psycho-social, political, and economic realms (Neal and Rettig, 1975). In essence, the individual is affected by his total environment such that he "feels no sense of belonging to his community or nation. Personal contacts are neither stable nor satisfactory" (Grodzins, 1956, p. 134). Melvin Seeman sees alienation as an inability to control one's life, to make sense of one's existence, to achieve desired results from normal methods, to be accepted as a person, and to live up to one's own expectations (Seeman, 1971).

Seeman has broken alienation into four separable dimensions: meaninglessness, isolation, powerlessness, and normlessness. The elements of alienation have been widely examined for their correlational value in a variety of settings and sample groups. Findings indicate a curvilinear relationship with age; and inverse relationships with socioeconomic status, education, group memberships, health and political participation (Dean, 1961; Martin, Bengtson and Acock, 1974; Neal and Rettig, 1975; Seeman, 1967, 1971, 1972). The dimensions can be discussed as follows:

1. Powerlessness as a dimension is rooted in Marx and Hegel's early discussion of alienation and the separation, helplessness and purposelessness in one's control over his/her economic and social destiny. Kris and Leites (1950) speak of ordinary individuals' loss of understanding or influence over the very event upon which his/her life and happiness is known to depend.

2. Normlessness is derived from Durkheim's concept of anomie which is manifested in an individual's perpetual "malcontent, disutility, disorientation and disenchantment." DeGrazia (1948) characterized normlessness "as a painful uneasiness or anxiety, a feeling of separation from group standards, a feeling of pointlessness, or that no certain goals exist" (p. 3). It is important to note that normative expectations are necessary conditions for goal attainment.

3. Social isolation is related to the separation from the group or from the group standards. It refers to the disintegration or separateness one feels in regard to other human beings.

4. Societal meaninglessness indicates the perception of national or international events as perplexing and unpredictable. Important here is the notion that nothing is worthwhile.

These dimensions are highly correlated with the dimensions of Anomia and Internal-External Locus of Control (Gore and Rotter, 1963; Nettler, 1957; Rotter, 1962, 1966; Seeman, 1959, 1967). Important in each of these variables are the perceptions of the individual rather than the objective conditions in society (the reality of affairs). Additionally, these measures do not take into consideration the "value" of control that the individual wishes to have. Rather they measure perceived congruence between expectations and reality.

This study analyzes perceived congruence (or discongruence) because in such a diverse reality as western society's, individuals are confronted with many patterns of living (family, politics, science, education, economics, arts, etc.) such that only as one detects and understands phenomenon can one act upon it. Hence, only as an older adult perceives his/her social reality can he/she choose to take action within it. The dependent variables discussed below examine older adults' perceptions as they affect the individual's feelings and activities in late life.

Anomia

Anomia is the psychological derivative of Durkheim's sociological concept, anomie. Anomie refers to the situation brought on by

disintegrated social systems such that an individual or institution suffers from the absence of values that might give purpose or direction to life, the loss of intrinsic and socialized values, and the insecurity of the hopelessly disoriented (MacIver, 1950). Lasswell (1952) discusses anomie as ". . . lack of identification on the part of the primary ego of the individual with a self that includes others, i.e., psychic isolation--alone, unwanted, unloved, unvalued" (p. 132).

Srole (1956) views anomia as a "social-psychological continuum related to the individual's generalized and pervasize sense of self-to-others-belongingness versus self-to-others-distance and alienation . . . . Of central concern is the development of anomia in response to objective conditions of stressful malintegration in the social world" (p. 711). This measure of "interpersonal alienation" is carried to its limit when critics of Srole's scale accuse it of measuring only the darkest despair (Meier and Bell, 1959). In this sense, one's level of despair represents that part of man which is bound by no effective norms of responsibility towards others. Meier and Bell explain anomia as being dependent upon unmet access to "socially structured" life goals. Following the discussion above concerning age-based role diffusion, lack of normative behavioral expectations in late life, and the perceived discontinuity between mid-life and late life which can generate alienation and problems of stigmatization, a study of anomia in late life is most appropriate.

Srole views such feelings of malintegration on a continuum from eunomic to anomic--from a well-ordered condition in society to a disordered, disintegrated, hopeless, demoralized and discouraged state of

affairs. Srole sees three sets of forces operating to affect the immediate situation of the individual: reference groups, generalized values in life goals, and lifelong socialization processes. Reference groups in late life are often normless models of behavior even in a subcultured, segregated situation (Rose, 1965; Rosow, 1973). In late life, individuals reach Erikson's (1963) last stage of development, integrity versus despair, either having successfully accomplished life goals, reconciled to the failure of not achieving those goals, or suffering the despair of never being able to achieve those goals. Finally, the older individual has been confronted throughout his life with socialization processes working to provide normative behavior models which structure his expectations, potential and efficacy.

At the heart of this discussion is the notion that individuals enter adulthood as "normal" socialized entities who interact with social forces; but due to unmet needs and conditions of malintegration in the individual's social sphere, anomia develops. Research has shown significant anomic conditions in late life. Bell (1957) found a positive relationship between age and levels of anomia, i.e., older adults suffered more disintegration and demoralization than younger individuals. He also found that low economic neighborhoods scored significantly higher in anomia than those from higher economic neighborhoods.

Meier and Bell (1959) found older men significantly more anomic than younger men but only after the age of 50. They also found socioeconomic status significantly affecting anomia and participation levels. They found that married men were less anomic than single,

widowed, separated or divorced men. Jews and Protestants were least likely to show high scores in anomia. They concluded their study by stating: "We have inferred that socioeconomic status, class identification, age, social isolation, occupational mobility, marital status and religious preference, all indicators of life chances, precede in time and cause anomia" (p. 201).

In Leonard's study (1977), Srole's anomia index was reconstructed from nine items from the 1974 NORC survey. Leonard's results correlating a number of sociological, social psychological and activity/organizational variables in persons aged 60 and over with his reconstructed anomia index found zero-order correlations for the following sociological variables: education ($r = .35$), work status ($r = .36$), occupational prestige ($r = .35$), and income ($r = .25$). Social psychological variables that proved significant in Leonard's study were attitudinal correlates such as financial status relative to other Americans ($r = .29$), self-rated health ($r = .24$), satisfaction with life ($r = .25$) and financial satisfaction ($r = .24$). The variables labeled activity/organizational yielded only one correlation over .20, voting in 1972 election ($r = .25$).

Using a stepwise multiple regression analysis, Leonard found the six strongest variables related to anomia ($r^2 = .37$) being: 1) financial relativity (relative to the average of other American families); 2) city size (the larger the city the lower the anomia); 3) race (nonwhites were more prone to anomia); 4) work status (those who are working are less anomic than those not working); 5) education (the higher the education the less anomic); and 6) occupational prestige.

These findings are consistent with other researchers of anomia and alienation, and support the notion that the social system, which reenforces the restrictions in potential for earnings and changed economic status in late life (retirement), creates an environment for the blockage of life goals and substitutions for unmet goals. Hence, the choice of the Anomia Index reflects consistently the proposition that many aged are in a distressful, disintegrated and disillusioned situation. If this was the case in the sample used here, it further justifies the researchers' efforts to change attitudes and behaviors by offering options for contribution and growth.

Life Satisfaction

A measure of life satisfaction means an attempt to measure the psychological well-being of an individual. The measure of life satisfaction is dependent on a number of demographic and social psychological variables each with relevance and impact on well-being. Much of the research is found to be related to social environmental and situational factors, e.g., housing, health, satisfaction in retirement, race and income. Consistent with the focus of this study, measures of life satisfaction are thought to be simultaneously subjective and objective. Indeed, it is the perception of one's well-being as well as satisfaction with actual economic and health situations that influence the total dimensions of life satisfaction.

In recent years many studies have been done regarding life satisfaction and older adults (Edwards and Klemmack, 1973; Knapp, 1976; Medley, 1971; Maddox and Eisdorfer, 1962; Neugarten, Havighurst and Tobin, 1961; Palmore and Kivett, 1977; Palmore and Luikart, 1972;

Spreitzer and Snyder, 1974). The measure of life satisfaction is most often used as a dependent variable (as it is in this study). In general, the research seems to focus either on the individual and utilizes social criteria of success and competence, or upon the individual's frame of reference with little attention given to levels of social participation. Studies that fall within the first category tend to measure the extent of social participation implying that the greater the extent of social participation and the less the individual varies from the patterns of activity in his/her pre-retirement years, the greater his/her well-being. This position is certainly consistent with the activity theory of aging and such positive correlates of increased activity should motivate older adults to keep active. The second position focuses more on the individual's own evaluation of his/her present or past life satisfaction or happiness.

According to Campbell, Converse and Rodgers (1976), an individual's assessment of satisfaction is derived from social psychological bases of evaluation: levels of aspiration, expectation, equity, reference groups, personal needs and personal values. These levels of the individual are pervasive in all interactions with social reality and perceived feelings and yield evaluated attributes and measures of satisfaction.

Following the lead of the researchers of alienation, anomie and anomia, it seems that studies of life satisfaction have continued to explore correlates of satisfied and unmet needs. Indeed, levels of satisfaction can be more precisely discussed as "the perceived discrepancy between aspiration and achievement, ranging from the perception of

fulfillment to that of deprivation. Satisfaction implies a judgmental or cognitive experience, while happiness suggests an experience with feeling or affect" (Campbell et al., 1976, p. 8).

There have been many indices designed to measure life satisfaction, morale and well-being. Bradburn's (1969) Affect Balance Scale, Lawton's (1972) Philadelphia Geriatric Center Morale Scale, and Neugarten's et al. (1961) Life Satisfaction Index have been established as the major indices in empirical studies. They are multidimensional scales with strong validity to aged samples. Indeed, Lawton's scale and the Life Satisfaction Index (LSI) were designed especially for older adults. While both scales were constructed to measure multidimensionality, most subsequent research has utilized them simply as unidimensional wholes.

The Life Satisfaction Index Z (LSIZ) used in this study was based on five theoretically plausible components of well-being: zest versus apathy; resolution and fortitude; congruence between desired and achieved goals, positive self-concept; and mood tone (Neugarten et al., 1961). Aspects of these components indicate that the individual takes pleasure from the round of activities that constitute his everyday life. High ratings are given for enthusiasm and ego involvement. Low ratings are given for being bored and involved in meaninglessness hyperactivity. High scores are given for responses that indicate an acceptance of responsibility for one's own life; and whether it was or is good or bad, the respondent does not blame himself too much or others as the source of his failures and disappointments. Low ratings are given those who have missed most opportunities or have unmet

expectations of approval. Pride in work, leisure and appearance rate high while low ratings go for feeling old, sick, incompetent and sad. Happy and optimistic attitudes and moods are scored positively while those who feel "blue and lonely," bitter and angry rate low.

In relating life satisfaction to other variables, Spreitzer and Snyder (1974) analyzed data drawn from the N.O.R.C. (1974). The data were judged to relate specifically to measures of life satisfaction. They used a subjective form of measure on the perceived quality of life based on self reports of the individual's personal life experience. This study was particularly interesting in that it showed comparisons for two age groupings: persons under 65 and those over 65. They found that women reported a higher degree of life satisfaction than men from 18 through age 65 at which time the degree of life satisfaction tended to increase for men and decrease among women. Men tended to reach their high point in terms of life satisfaction during the very same period (age 65-70) when women reached their low point. Work seemed to achieve a high correlation with life satisfaction, because of the men age 65-70 who were still working full time, more reported a higher degree of life satisfaction than those who were retired. Four variables were found to be strong predictors of life satisfaction. They were financial satisfaction, self-assessed health, sex and occupation. The researchers were not sure why levels of occupation would be a strong predictor of life satisfaction unless perhaps because occupation partly determines one's overall life style which in turn conditions one's retirement and transition into the expected role of the aged. Self-assessed health and economic sufficiency were the strongest predictors of life satisfaction.

In a study done by Medley (1971), a sample of 109 males and 192 females over the age of 65 was used. The study is interesting in that he designed a correlation matrix to show the relationships among the five variables: financial situation, health satisfaction, satisfaction with standard of living, satisfaction with family life, and satisfaction with life in general. Comparisons of the variables showed that satisfaction with family life had the largest single direct effect for males and females. There was also found to be a significant correlation of life satisfaction with health and financial situation although the levels of importance differed with the sex.

Another study by Knapp (1976) found that only three variables--sex, emotional contact with friends and relatives, and age--appeared to be significant predictors of each component of the Life Satisfaction Index (Neugarten et al., 1961).

In a study of mailed questionnaires collected from 70 older male industrial workers, Glamser (1976) found that workers who could realistically expect a positive retirement experience in terms of finances, friends, social activity and level of preparedness were likely to have a positive attitude toward retirement and thus a higher level of life satisfaction. The results of the study would seem to indicate that the worker's appraisal of what he or she expects to encounter in old age is a high correlate of degree of satisfaction.

In line with Glamser's study, Peretti and Wilson (1975) did a study to determine the effect of the voluntary and involuntary retirement on life satisfaction, usefulness, self-image and interpersonal relationships in aged males. They found that voluntary retirement

tends to have a more positive effect on aged males than does involuntary retirement. Those who had voluntarily retired had planned their retirement and eagerly looked forward to it, whereas the involuntarily retired men found retirement to be a disruption of their everyday life--thus, a loss of life satisfaction and self-esteem.

In trying to explain life satisfaction using longitudinal data, Palmore and Kivett (1977) found no significant change in mean life satisfaction scores over time. This was contrary to those adherents of the "crisis periods" (retirement and menopause) argument and the cross-sectional data that usually show less satisfaction in late life (Edwards and Klemmack, 1973; Gurin, Veroff and Field, 1960). They also found no significant difference in life satisfaction between men and women. Palmore and Kivett also found in the three-stage (rounds) study that self-rated health, sexual enjoyment and social activity hours continued to have significant relationships to life satisfaction. In predicting life satisfaction from round to round, they found that the strongest predictor of life satisfaction was a person's score on life satisfaction at an earlier time. Other variables (health, sex, age, activities) were found to be not very useful in predicting change in life satisfaction.

From the above research and according to Maddox and Eisdorfer (1962), it should be apparent that the elderly are not a homogeneous group and differences in life satisfactions are widespread among them, as among other groups in society. Maddox and Eisdorfer maintained that differences in health, job control, economic security and voluntary activities reflect the potential within older adults for maintaining

life satisfaction. Hence, intervening characteristics have diverse effects on life satisfaction based on situational contexts and demographic backgrounds.

Internal-External Control

The psychological dimension of internal-external locus of control is central to the present study. On the conceptual level, "internal control describes an individual who in a specific situation or class of situations believes that what has happened, is happening or will happen, is directly related to what he has done, is doing, or will do in those situations" (Peters, 1968, p. 2). For the individual and his set of expectations "good" things that happen to him are because he worked hard and skillfully enough to effect the outcome. Failure is an indication that the individual did not try hard enough, did not use or know the right skills or was responsible for some previous act bearing on the failure. It follows that an individual when engaging in this type of causal thinking would tend to be actively pursuing satisfaction and in control of behavioral alternatives enhancing the desired outcomes (Peters, 1968; Rotter, Seeman and Liverant, 1962).

In contrast, external control pertains to an individual who perceives that what happens to him has no relation to his personal action and effect. For this individual, satisfactions are gained through luck or fate. Negative events are caused by forces beyond his understanding and/or control. Failures are beyond his responsibility and are attributed to outside agents. Important in the dimension of external control and especially relevant to this study is the notion that there is little or no use engaging in certain activities since what happens

has no relationship to these activities. Also implied in external control is a lack of confidence in one's abilities to control what happens to him in certain situations.

As in the construct of alienation, anomia and life satisfaction, research related to I-E has been conducted within the framework of social learning theory (Rotter, 1965). Social learning theory states that the potential for any behavior to occur in a given situation is a function of (1) the individual's expectancy that his behavior will secure an available reward and (2) the value of the reward for that individual. Consistent with the internal-external construct, the individual, though desirous of a goal, may believe that he possesses no behavior that will allow him success in securing a goal.

The above explanation of behavior is closely related to Atkinson's (1957) theory of motivation which states that "the strength of motivation to perform some act is assumed to be a function of the strength of a motive, the expectancy (subjective probability) that the act will have as a consequence the attainment of an incentive, and the value of the incentive" (p. 360). This kind of cognitive anticipation is strongly related to an individual's willingness to enter risk situations such that internals tend to choose significantly more medium level risk situations while externals tend to select very low or very high probability risks (Liverant and Scodel, 1960). In essence, the internals generally react in a manner similar to persons who strive for achievement rather than act from fear or expectancy of failure when confronted with levels of aspiration tasks (Peters, 1968). The implication for the present study is that theoretical frameworks

discussed thus far in this study and empirical findings related to them can serve to support the contention that expectancy of success is a crucial factor in determining goal-directed behavior in situations which offer the individual alternative paths to manipulating his environment.

Research (Rotter, 1966; Rotter et al., 1962) indicates that persons develop generalized expectancies in regard to whether their behavior has any effect on control of reward or reinforcement. Not only do individuals differentiate rewards as internally or externally controlled, but their expectancy in each situation changes. Studies utilizing internal-external dimensions included such topics as learning, social action taking, risk taking, conformity, political affiliation, levels of aspiration, housing situation and levels of satisfaction in life (Felton, 1976; Lefcourt, 1966; Rotter, 1966; Thurnher and Pierce, 1975; Wolk and Kurtz, 1975). The research shows that generalized expectancy is relevant most significantly to that information which provides tools necessary for effecting control over the individual's desired outcome.

Seeman's (1966) "structure-alienation-behavior" sequence model depicts alienation as the consequence of such social structure forces as the decline of kinship as a criteria of social position, the concurrent rise of anonymity and impersonality and the development of highly structured social forms (bureaucracy and mechanization). The historical antecedents of externality in the form of failures or rewards to occur may be generic to the individual's sense of control over socio-political events, i.e., to include control over the political system,

the economy, international affairs (Felton, 1976; Peters, 1968; Seeman, 1972). External attitudes may be conceived as the result of the individual being separated from effective control over his economic destiny; of his being manipulated; "feeling" involved in public affairs but not feeling that he can understand or influence events (Dean, 1961; Kris and Leites, 1950). Externality may in turn result in alienated behavior, such as political passivity, racial and religious prejudice, and avoiding the kind of knowledge that would help change the individual's conditions. High externality goes with limited knowledge about one's situation because knowledge acquisition is irrelevant for those who believe that external forces control the events that surround him/her (Seeman, 1967, 1972).

Hence, important in this study are the notions relevant to the social system in which we all live i.e., role expectation, role diffusion and adaptation patterns in late life and the older adults' generalized expectancies of control relevant behavior to adjust present life situations and other environmental concerns. The antecedents of externality, or a low life expectancy for control, seem to be described by the characteristics of the lower socio-economic groups in our society (Battle and Rotter, 1963; Coleman, 1966). Individuals characterized by such conditions are assumed to have few tools such as income or education with which to manipulate their environment. It seems reasonable to assume, therefore, that most older adults who have lower levels of formal education and a newly reduced income would be in a condition conducive to externality. Further, it seems reasonable to assume that participation in activities designed to provide tools that

might provide more perceived power (as in this study) may also be deemed control relevant behavior.

Assuming that a high value is placed on acquiring the skills needed for advancement and improvement in role expectation, the major effort expended by the individual through this study should result in a better perceived feeling about expectancy for internal control in socio-political areas and about being able to exert himself on his environment versus the expectancy of control by outside forces.

Crucial in social learning theory and the internal-external construct is the notion that prediction of particular behavior occurring in certain situations must involve assessment of the alternative behaviors available in the same situation (Rotter, 1975). For example, for an older adult to choose to participate in this learning experience and possibly participate in civic affairs, it is important for that individual to know something about what alternatives (such as visiting a library, taking a nap or going on a trip) are available.

It must be made clear that there is a difference of opinion on whether being internal is the "good" and "desired" mode of perception and action. While some psychologists quickly assume that it is good to be internal and nonfunctional to be external, Rotter's early studies showed no relationship between locus of control and political ideology. Indeed, there are several studies (Efran, 1963; Phares, 1965) which suggest that it is typical of internals to repress (forget) failures and unpleasant experiences. This may consequently result in reports of less anxiety, fewer symptoms and thereby create a positive relationship between internality and adjustment (Rotter, 1975).

Rotter (1975) suggests that while there should probably be a limit on personal control, it might be better for people to be internal who are in obvious difficulties or who are trying to cope with failing abilities. He warns, however, that those who feel more internality than reality warrants might be subject to trauma when they discover they cannot control some things. For the aged, then, who face Erikson's final state, or who are examples of the activity and social reconstruction models of aging, what is the dominant mode and what are the variables explaining that relationship? This question motivates the purpose of this study.

There have been many studies (Rotter estimates well over 600) done utilizing the I-E dimension in many situations for a variety of age-based groups. Gore and Rotter (1963) found that the internality predicted the type and degree of behavior committed toward participation in civil rights activities on the part of students enrolled in a southern black college. Neal and Seeman (1964) found that work-related organizations (unions, business, or professional associations) exhibited more internality than unorganized groups even after socioeconomic status of the worker was controlled. Seeman (1966) corroborated these findings of organizational membership/powerlessness relationship by a cross-cultural study of workers in Sweden. He added a new dimension, political knowledge, and found that internals scored significantly higher on an objective test of political knowledge.

Specifically related to the aged and their perceived dimension of control, much research has been done recently. Variables strongly related to internal-external dimension include measures of life

satisfaction (Palmore and Luikart, 1972; Wolk and Kurtz, 1975), coping styles (Kuypers, 1972), self-esteem (Schulz, 1974), housing situation, socioeconomic status, sex and age (Wolk and Kurtz, 1975), race (Peterson, 1974), political participation (Felton, 1976), organizational memberships and health (Palmore and Luikart, 1972). In a study by Schulz (1974), the treatment conditions of internal control were found to be superior to those conditions of no treatment in their effect on indicators of physical and psychological status, as well as activity level. The conclusion drawn in that study was that a predictable positive reinforcer has significant positive impact on the well-being of institutionalized aged individuals.

Research by Tolor and Reznikoff (1967), Smith (1970) and Duke and Mullens (1973) came to a general conclusion that internal locus of control is correlated with a more positive life style and leads to a higher level of adaptation to the environment. Rotter (1975) criticized these findings and other similar studies and suggests that (1) the research has only considered situations in which it should be positive to hold an internal expectancy for control and (2) the interpretation of the personal control-adjustment relationship has failed to take into account the degree to which the environment permits expectancies for internality. Falling into the set of studies "guilty" of the same assumptions is the Wolk and Kurtz study (1975) which found that internal elderly people report more developmental task accomplishment, greater satisfaction with present and past life circumstances, and a higher degree of involvement in day-to-day activities. Studies by Palmore and Luikart (1972) and Kuypers (1972) demonstrated that

internal people were more satisfied with their lives and had more positive coping styles, respectively.

Following from Rotter's criticism of limited studies which then generalize to any situation and after Felton's and Kahana's (1974) study of situational assessments of locus of control, Wolk (1976) posited that situational freedom or constraint affect significantly the relationship between locus of control and adjustment and attitudes. Indeed, Felton and Kahana (1974) found that belief in situational external control for institutionalized individuals related positively to ratings of life satisfaction and morale. Wolk found the situational context very significant, i.e., in settings of low constraint the greater the level of expectancy for internal control, the more positive the adjustment behavior, personal satisfaction and self-concept. For Wolk's study and in concert with Rotter's notion of the congruence between expectations and the specific contingencies of the environment, the setting of low constraint facilitated the congruence between the aged's situational potential for control and his/her generalized expectancy for internal control. Wolk and Kurtz (1975) also found that elderly individuals living at home scored more internal than younger samples.

It is important to note also that the actual amount of control that one has in a realistic life situation will modify the relationship between perceived control and satisfaction (Felton and Kahana, 1974; Watson and Baumel, 1967). When related to political participation, it is important to know the meaning (impact) of that participation for the older adult. Indeed, political activities can provide reinforcement

or frustration if the expected effect is not realized, i.e., those who expect that participation will enhance feelings of control might be discouraged by his/her ineffectual role in politics. Felton (1976) found that aged members of a social action group were significantly more internal on political control than the members of a non-politically affiliated sample. Internals in personal and political spheres were also found to score higher on adjustment indicators (Philadelphia Geriatric Morale Scale) than externals. Also significant, however, was Felton's analysis of the relationship of the total I-E scale and adjustment between politically active and politically inactive people. She found no significant difference in feelings of satisfaction, morale or adjustment between the groups. Only the dimension of control ideology was significant in its prediction of life satisfaction.

Implicit in Felton's study is that while politically active older people do not differ significantly from less active peers in their belief about personal efficacy, their perception of political efficacy is functional in maintaining a sense of individual morale. More importantly, believing oneself to be the locus of control over one's personal and political life is predictive of adjustment regardless of whether or not one acts on those beliefs by joining a political organization. Her study was an inadequate predictor of generalized behavioral patterns because of a small sample which looked at only one type of political affiliation. Not included was the number of political activities, level of activity and knowledge about political affairs. What seems most valuable, however, is the implication that those who

do perceive themselves in control of their personal and political lives did score significantly higher on measures of adjustment.

Certain changes were made in the original I-E scale before its use in the present research. The latest version of the scale as described by Rotter is essentially a unidimensional forced-choice scale of 23 items.

Gurin's and Gurin's (1975) factor analysis of the Rotter scale identified five dimensions of control, many of which correspond closely to the factors derived in other investigation of multidimensionality of the I-E scale (Mirels, 1970; Thurnher and Pierce, 1975). In the present investigation only four of the five factors derived by Gurin were used. The success-mobility factor contained only two items which among this sample were relevant. The scales used were those identified as control ideology, personal control, interpersonal control and political control. Control ideology relates to the feeling people have in which they see other individuals as generally capable of altering events in their own lives. Interpersonal control measures the individual's perception of whether he/she believes he does or does not have the capacity to affect his relationships with other people. Personal control is associated with a person's perceived feeling about control over his/her own life. Political control relates to one's perceiving himself/herself as the locus of control over events in the political sphere.

Following Gurin's lead, the researchers reduced the number of items from 23 to 15 and applied both unidimensional and multidimensional assessment to the variables discussed. A further modification was

made to enhance the readability of the scale. In a study examining I-E and learning for prison inmates, Peters (1968) made changes in style and word content in the I-E scale in order that those respondents with weak verbal skills could read and understand the scale. Peters conducted a test of reliability of the new scale with Rotter's original and achieved a measure of internal consistency by computing a split-half reliability coefficient corrected by the Spearman-Brown formula. The coefficient was .64 which compares favorably with Rotter's original coefficient of reliability. Test-retest reliability for Peters was .76.

The construct validity of the I-E scale is illustrated in the related studies reported in this conceptual framework, especially those that describe the attempts of people to better their life conditions or to control their environment in important life situations (Neal and Seeman, 1964; Rotter, 1966; Seeman, 1967; Wolk, 1976).

The independent variables examined in this study are discussed in the following section.

Independent Variables

The review of the literature revealed a number of personal and demographic variables that tend to influence people's attitudes and feelings of well-being and adaptation. A number of these variables were selected for use in this study to determine the degree to which they might be related to each other and to participants' feelings of anomia, life satisfaction and locus of control. The variables are discussed below.

Educational Activities

Marcus and Havighurst (1976) class older adult learning needs in three ways: survival, self-esteem and transcendence. Survival needs relate to the challenges in everyday living. The self-esteem needs are related to life satisfaction, self-concept, loss of independence, and feelings of frustration, alienation and disaffection. Transcendence refers to the continuing search for fulfillment and purpose in being--"the contemplation and resynthesis" (Moody, 1976) of late life.

Participation in continuing education activities for those over 65 is fairly small (about 2 percent). This lack of involvement does not indicate a lack of benefits which older adults could achieve through educational activities. Rather, it seems that many older adults are not aware of the values (rewards) education may hold for them (DeCrow, 1974; Havighurst, 1963; McClusky, 1974). Marcus (1976) found that age tends to produce a shift in perceiving the utility of participation in education from instrumental to expressive. The dilemma seems to be planning programs that, while fulfilling survival needs and the instrumental needs, are perceived by older adults as expressive.

Nonparticipation is generally associated with lower levels of education, and since older adults have a much lower than average amount of education, they do not turn to education for new activities. Closely related to educational attainment is the variable economic status. Many aged, however, are often victims of poor health, educational impoverishment, physical poverty, inadequate housing, family dependency, and feelings of powerlessness. Education can be used to

ameliorate each of these deficiencies. Indeed, many retirement complexes, nursing homes, congregate meal sites, colleges and universities have provided educational programs for older adults in an attempt to change attitudes and skills. Older adults can learn and are motivated to participate in a number of activities, but research shows that educational programmers have only done a moderately effective job in attracting older adults.

Leisure

Major studies about activity levels and age indicate that while older adults devote more time to leisure than younger adults, the range of leisure activities is narrower and activities are less strenuous (Campbell, 1969; Havighurst and Albrecht, 1953; Streib, 1971; Szalai, 1972). Ethnic heritage has been found to be predictive of leisure types, i.e., Jews and black older adults look to group activities more than other ethnic groups (Guttman, 1973; Jackson, 1973). Older adults tend to turn inward for leisure, e.g., to religious concerns, reverie and fantasy (Neugarten, 1968). Gordon, et al. (1976) found that older men showed higher frequency of leisure activity than women, especially in dancing, sports and exercise, outdoor activities, travel, discussion, spectator sports and memberships in clubs. Women tend to remain in their sex-role type even in leisure, i.e., they participate more in such items as cooking, home embellishment, television viewing and cultural activities. As for leisure pleasure, recent research between age and derived leisure pleasure finds a substantial negative relationship between age and derived leisure pleasure (Gordon, 1971; Neugarten, 1968) due to changes from mid-life expectations, loss of

mobility, problems of ill-health and type of leisure intensity. Visiting with friends, T.V. viewing, volunteering and relaxation tend to be the dominant leisure activities (Gordon, Gaitz and Scott, 1976; Havighurst, 1975; Neugarten, 1975).

The effort in this study was not to predict leisure styles but to determine whether the extent of leisure activity is related to feelings of anomia, life satisfaction and locus of control.

Housing

According to Carp (1966) elderly housing is the life setting in its physical and social entirety, the context for living. Special housing for older adults brings a special dimension to expected behavior patterns in late life. Housing for the elderly can be described in terms of independent and group housing. Atchley (1972, p. 271) has discussed these two types in the following ways:

> Fully independent--self-contained and self-sufficient (owning a home or renting an apartment).
>
> Semi-independent--self-contained but augmented by meals and chore services (owning a home or renting but with some services).
>
> Congregate housing--self-contained but segregated often with cooking and housing tasks provided by the retirement complex.
>
> Personal care home--semi-ambulatory retirement home neither self-contained nor self-sufficient.
>
> Nursing home--total care facility providing for health, personal and household functions.

Much research has been done about effects of housing on the aged's well-being (Carp, 1966; Riley and Foner, 1968; Rosow, 1965; Wolk and Kurtz, 1975). Conclusions from these studies are that: 1) low cost

housing can be beneficial for the competent, healthy and poor; 2) over half of the widows live alone; 3) older women gravitate to retirement complexes while older men choose old hotels and rooming houses; 4) education figures prominently in regard to housing satisfaction; 5) self-selection figures prominently in person-situation congruence and adaptation (Carp, 1968); 6) housing situations affect levels of internal-external control, i.e., those in fully independent and semi-independent housing scored higher on I-E (Wolk and Kurtz, 1975).

Retirement

Prevalent in the literature are studies of adaptation and the effect of retirement (Carp, 1968; Friedman and Orbach, 1974; George and Maddox, 1977; Streib, 1965; Streib and Schneider, 1971). Studies discuss such factors as adjustment, activity, health, income and satisfaction with new roles. Shanas et al. (1968) stressed importance of health and degree of mobility as basic conditions for satisfaction with retirement. Streib and Schneider (1971) found people's expectations for retirement much worse than the actual experience. Reno (1972) found that among newly retired workers aged 62-65 who retired compulsorily, more than one-half reported they did not want to retire. Friedman and Orbach (1974) report wide dissatisfaction with compulsory retirement, especially as retirement relates to loss of income.

In a follow-up to a longitudinal study, George and Maddox (1977) found occupational prestige as the single best predictor of adaptation in retirement. Additionally, marital status, education, feelings of job deprivation, self-perceived health, and an interaction between length of time retired and occupational prestige were all significant

predictors of adaptation over time. Significant in all these studies are the elements of income and health.

Health

With the increase in life expectancy, one's health and healthy living become even more apparent in our social lives. Illness affects an individual's capacity to spend energies toward achieving personal goals and social obligations. Illness reduces role performance and the social space available to him. Shanas and Maddox (1976) report that poor health affects the decision to retire for over half of the individuals who do retire prior to age 65. They further discuss that physical illness is negatively correlated to self-concept, successful marital roles, sense of well-being, intellectual dysfunction, and maladaptive responses to environmental stimuli.

According to Shanas et al. (1968, p. 218), "the majority of old people seem to have a conception of how well or sick they are . . . ." In their cross-cultural study, men were more optimistic than women even though in the years immediately following retirement the reverse is true. Persons over 80 still living in the community show high levels of optimism whereas those in their 70s appear depressed about their health. Shana's study also states that "those persons who feel their health is poor are far more likely than other persons to express feelings of loneliness and alienation" (p. 219). Lowenthal (1964) concurs by showing the high correlation between poor physical health, social isolation and mental illness.

Research shows a negative relationship between poor physical health, physical disability and well-being (Jeffers and Nichols, 1961;

Lowenthal and Boler, 1965). It is also possible that self-perceived criteria for health, mostly influenced by changing reference groups' influences and changing life style patterns, affect subjective feelings of life satisfaction more than objective measures of health (Maddox and Eisdorfer, 1962). Spreitzer and Snyder (1974) found that health and financial adequacy were the strongest predictors of life satisfaction among the elderly. It has also been advanced that social participation is significantly decreased by perceived ill health (Palmore and Luikart, 1972; Streib and Schneider, 1971).

Age

Because the sample in this study was restricted to those over 60 years of age, the variable age is especially pertinent. The notions of age-grading and cohort analysis lend direction and rationale for the entire study. In this study there are several age cohort groups ranging from ages 60 to 95. This range certainly represents a full generation and differences are expected consistent with age cohort effects mentioned in recent research studies (Baltes, 1968; Bengtson, 1971; Campbell, Converse and Rodgers, 1976; Cutler, 1974; Meier and Bell, 1959; Ryder, 1965; Shanas et al., 1968).

Maddox and Wiley (1976) point to the necessity of examining age effects and differences based on the overarching variations in generational dynamics. Age has distinct biological, psychological and sociological components. Precision in measuring individuals' behavioral levels of adjustment and adaptation is somewhat limited due to the lack of longitudinal data indicating the historical, environmental/individual effects. Such variables as family background, schooling, work history,

situational effects, kin networks, friends, and political experiences have long-lasting effects on individuals. To conduct cross-sectional research with older adults means to recognize the limitations of imprecision.

Religion

The dimensions of religion and aging are diverse ranging from denominational differences to attendance to voluntary activities at the church, from participation in ritual to beliefs and morality. Suffice it to say that religion is ubiquitous in the lives of most older adults. For the aged, patterns of attendance decline in most faiths except for Jews (Riley and Foner, 1968). Clark and Anderson (1967) found that a minority of older adults attended church services at least once a month. They found a number of factors related to not attending: no developed association with a church early in life, differences in belief systems, problems of mobility and ill health. These seem very similar to those reasons affecting the general population.

Riley and Foner (1968) found that those older adults who attended church regularly were more likely to be well adjusted. Moberg (1965) found that as a person ages, religion takes on greater import in such dimensions as self-esteem, identity, attitudes, values, beliefs and norms. Kent (1971) found that black older adults participate in and receive more from their churches than do older whites.

Income

Income is certainly one of the most consistent parameters influencing life satisfaction, well-being, anomia, internal control, morale and adjustment in old age. Indeed, income affects activity levels, political participation, adjustment to retirement, housing, health and mobility.

It goes without saying that for most older adults, the reduction in income that comes with retirement is a traumatic occurrence that affects all parts of their lives. Changes in the American economy due to inflation have caused even greater conflicts in the aged's social-psychological environment. In 1973, in terms of money income, the aged poor accounted for almost 15 percent of the total poor population and about 16 percent of all persons over 65. Factors related to these statistics are race, sex, education, pre-retirement planning, and mandatory retirement (Kreps, 1971; Neugarten and Maddox, 1978; Schultz, 1974).

Marital Status

Marriage in late life is a time of stress, isolation and disenchantment as often as it is a time of intimacy and sharing. Changes in marital satisfaction are due in part to unmet expectations by either partner, loss of partner to death, new roles at home and in the family brought on by reduction of work roles, and reduction of contacts with kin (Pineo, 1968; Rosow, 1967; Sussman, 1976).

From measuring marital status one can also surmise head of household status. Married men in late life continue to perform that role

while widows, divorced, and separated women and those who never married must assume that role whether prepared for it or not. In late life, the proportion of widows increases much greater than the average. Aged men tend to continue to be married until death. Women face a very high probability of being widowed and living their last years alone. Interestingly, older couples are found to be as happy as most younger couples. While there is some dissatisfaction due to changes mentioned above, marriage through life acts as a positive support system (Atchley, 1972; Clark and Anderson, 1967; Riley and Foner, 1968).

Widowhood provides real problems for older adults. Suicide rates and mortality rates are higher for widowed people than for those still married. Those who have never married seem to be more well adjusted than widowed or divorced people. Their abilities to cope with isolation and autonomy have prepared them seemingly well for late life. They have learned to handle their freedom and are not bothered as much by grief and loneliness (Clark and Anderson, 1967).

Political Knowledge

Critical in this study is the awareness in the individual of the factors around him that affect the decisions about the maintenance of his life. Studies by Seeman (1963), Neal and Seeman (1964), and Seeman and Evans (1962) show the relationship between poor knowledge about organizational structures and other control relevant domains and feelings of powerlessness and external control. The inverse would be predicted by the social learning model which shows that when the individual's expectancies for internal control are made relevant, feelings of usefulness, hopefulness and internal control can be enhanced.

In this study, eight questions (see appendix) were asked to measure the knowledge the respondents had about their legislators at the local, state and national level. Even more pertinent to many of their immediate needs and concerns, they were asked if they knew who the director of the council on aging was at the local and state level. These questions were thought to be relevant to the mass society/social learning notion that bureaucratized and isolated individuals in contemporary society beome "convinced of their weakness and apathetic and uninformed on political affairs. . . . People have decided beforehand that knowledge is irrelevant, since there is nothing that the ordinary citizen can do in any case" (Seeman, 1971, p. 94). Hence, it is possible to surmise that alienated, external, anomic people will turn attention away from control-relevant learning which bears importantly upon their performance.

Organizational Activity

For the aged, family and work settings have served as the overriding socializing agents in their lives. Rose (1960) noted that voluntary associations evolve in societies when the family diminishes its role in nurturing and maintaining the older adult and that active participation in voluntary associations correlates positively with social adjustment. Supporting research by Videbeck and Knox (1965) found that older persons with relatively stable life situations tended to reduce participation in voluntary associations, whereas those with somewhat disrupted lives (widowhood, job changes, or retirement) tended to increase participation. Cutler (1974) found socioeconomic status and health to be significant factors in organizational

memberships. While voluntary associations help integrate the aged into the community, Wilensky (1961) found family attachments were more important to personal adjustment.

In any event, voluntary associations do provide options through which older adults can enter relationships, be influenced by them, and interact with others. Kleemeier (1961) viewed voluntary association membership as only meeting immediate needs of the individual. In a study of noninstitutionalized aged, Maddox (1966) found that activity patterns tended to persist over time, i.e., low activity persons had had low levels through most of their life. Similarly, high level activity in early life tended to predict high activity in late life. Maddox also found high social status, good health, and high intelligence, and high life satisfaction as significant variables related to patterns of activity. Age was significant only as a predictor of the most disengaged patterns.

Political Activity

There are many types of political participation. Studies by Milbreath (1965), Riley and Foner (1968), Glenn and Grimes (1968), Glenn (1969), Verba and Nie (1972), Felton (1976), and Neugarten (1974) point to the dynamics of political activity and age. Generally speaking, older adults are less active politically than younger cohorts, but this difference seems to result more from physical infirmity and lack of mobility than any significant disinterest concerning political matters. Riley and Foner (1968) found that political interest reached at maturity holds into old age. Controlling

for sex and education, Glenn and Grimes (1968) found a relationship between age and reported political interest with higher participation at age 60 and over with pronounced differences between middle aged and the elderly at most educational levels for both sexes.

Numerous studies have shown that voting increases with age, reaching a peak in the early 60s, then falling, but never falling back to levels of younger citizens. This decline in voting participation is attributed to problems of health, mortality, mobility, and lower educational levels, but not to age. Other studies show that women vote less than men at virtually all educational, income and age levels (Campbell, 1960; Foner, 1972). Verba and Nie (1972) find that when controlling for socioeconomic status and length of time in community, there is no decline in voting for even the oldest age cohort group.

But there are many forms of political activity other than voting. Verba and Nie (1972) analyzed clusters of participation into six different types: inactive (no activities); voting specialists (only vote); parochial (voting but contacts with at least one public official); communalists (voters who are engaged in many community activities); campaigners (active election workers and party volunteers); and complete activists (those totally involved). When analyzed by age the cluster types, older adults, are shown to be slightly overrepresented on the inactive index, highly overrepresented on the voting index, highly overrepresented as parochial participants, moderately underrepresented as campaigners, and highly underrepresented as complete activists. Hence, while voting and community activities do provide activities for older people, they are not overly active in grassroots and party politics.

In this study, categories of high, medium, low, voting only, and none are used to depict levels of political participation. These represent an approximation to the Verba-Nie typology without having done a sophisticated cluster analysis. There is no effort to measure political affiliation; rather, the level of participation is the dimension being studied.

The Role of Educational Experiences in Effecting Change in Older Adults

The review of studies related to anomia, life satisfaction and internal-external locus of control represent a reality with a consistent set of findings. The findings stem from both laboratory and field studies and represent differences in methodology and types of sample. The research reported here lends support to the notion that people develop generalized expectancies with regard to whether or not reinforcement, reward or success in situations is dependent upon their own behavior or is controlled by external forces, particularly luck, chance or social system dynamics outside the realm of their influence. Differences in viewing reinforcement contingencies have been measured in children, youth and old age.

The significance of this study lies not only in its potential contribution to general theoretical formulations undergirding the constructs of anomia, life satisfaction and internal-external control, but also in its practical purpose of helping to explain malintegration, disaffection and dissatisfaction in late life. Important also is the desire to provide a learning experience designed to enhance generalized levels of expectancy for internal control (through information about

participation and civic affairs), thus affecting one's self-concept and perception as a contributing member of society.

In the Social Breakdown Syndrome (SBS), the older individual loses former roles and reference groups, becomes dependent upon external labeling and develops a self-concept as incompetent and obsolete. With the Activity theory, Exchange model and the Social Reconstruction Syndrome (SRS), an optimistic goal is presented by emphasizing the stages older adults go through and how they can take positive steps to overcome the perceived distributive injustice legitimated upon them by the social system.

Indeed, in the SRS, Kuypers and Bengtson (1973) identify what must be done to reduce the susceptibility of older adults and build their self-confidence as continuing, effective, contributive and creative parts of our society. The present study was motivated by the desire to help strengthen the ego necessary to build coping skills and self-confidence. In order for the older adult to attempt to build adaptive problem solving skills, internalize a view of himself/herself as competent and effective, it was deemed appropriate to offer a series of workshops designed to provide knowledge and skills, and to change attitudes.

Related to the SRS and dependent upon its general form and content, this study purports to provide input into the cycle of re-construction. This was done to help encourage internal control as vital for the buildup and maintenance of coping skills necessary for the eventual reduction of dependency on the social system and generalized others. The model is diagrammed on the following page.

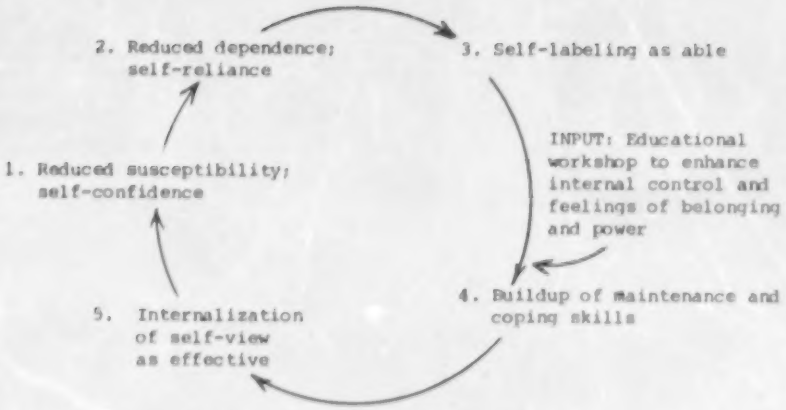
2. Reduced dependence; self-reliance
3. Self-labeling as able
INPUT: Educational workshop to enhance internal control and feelings of belonging and power
4. Buildup of maintenance and coping skills
5. Internalization of self-view as effective
1. Reduced susceptibility; self-confidence

Figure 3. Social Reconstruction model

It is felt that this study, entering the SRS cycle at stage 4 (see p. 22), assumes the proper, expected and legitimate role of adult education, and indeed of any learning situation, i.e., providing knowledge, skills and attitudes with which to expand options and change behavior. By entering at this level of the SRS cycle, it is believed that the older adult will gain an awareness of and practice with new coping skills directly related to adaptive problem solving and internalization of a self-view as effective. Following the logic of this proposition (and certainly not without a hope for the future) the older individual will achieve the other levels of the cycle. In addition, it is thought that older adults should and will have a dominant role in both inputs A and B. As Irving Rosow states, Americans have to make a moral choice:

> We may meet them (social problems of the aged) in the future as we have so often in the past, with palliatives and with token legislation, paid as a premium for the insurance of political careers. Or else, we may recognize their intrinsic human importance and meet them with social responsibility, justice and the worthier values of a free society (Rosow, 1962, p. 183).

Based upon the conceptual framework and the review of the literature, the following null hypotheses were established to guide the collection and analysis of the data:

Hypothesis I. There is no significant relationship between respondents' pretest level of anomia and the following personal and situational characteristics: organizational activities, leisure activities, educational activities, political activities, political knowledge, housing, marital status, age, sex, education, income, race, religion, health, job prior to retirement, forced retirement, desire to work, satisfaction with not working, self-planned learning activities, life satisfaction level and internal-external control level.

Hypothesis II. There is no significant relationship between respondents' pretest level of life satisfaction and the following personal and situational characteristics: organizational activities, leisure activities, educational activities, political activities, political knowledge, housing, marital status, age, sex, education, income, race, religion, health, job prior to retirement, forced retirement, desire to work, satisfaction with not working, self-planned learning activities, anomia level and internal-external control level.

Hypothesis III. There is no significant relationship between respondents' pretest level of internal-external control and the following personal and situational characteristics: organizational activities, leisure activities, educational activities, political activities, political knowledge, housing, marital status, age, sex, education, income, race, religion, health, job prior to retirement, forced retirement, desire to work, satisfaction with not working, self-planned learning activities, anomia level and life satisfaction level.

Hypothesis IV. There will be no significant change in mean anomia scores from pretest to posttest for either the experimental or the control group.

Hypothesis V. There will be no significant change in mean life satisfaction scores from pretest to posttest for either the experimental or the control group.

Hypothesis VI. There will be no significant change in mean internal-external control scores from pretest to posttest for either the experimental or the control group.

METHODOLOGY

The Research Design

This study utilized the pretest-treatment-posttest experimental design. The model was adapted from Greenberg and Matteson's research model and is illustrated in Figure 4 (Suchman, 1973, p. 92).

Population and Sample

Population

The population for this study consisted of adults 60 years of age or older residing in the Piedmont region of North Carolina during the spring and summer of 1978.

Sample Selection

The sample was selected to represent, as much as possible, a cross-section of older adults within the population under study. An effort was made to include representatives of varying levels of income, education, social status, and economic status. Consideration was given also to race and living arrangements.

Because of the nature of the experiment and the problems of mobility and dispersion among the potential participants, the sample was drawn from organized groups and clusters of older adults which met the criteria of representativeness and age. The groups included:

1. Residents of a nursing home in Raleigh.
2. Residents in two public high rise retirement complexes in Durham.
3. Residents in a private high rise retirement complex in Greensboro.

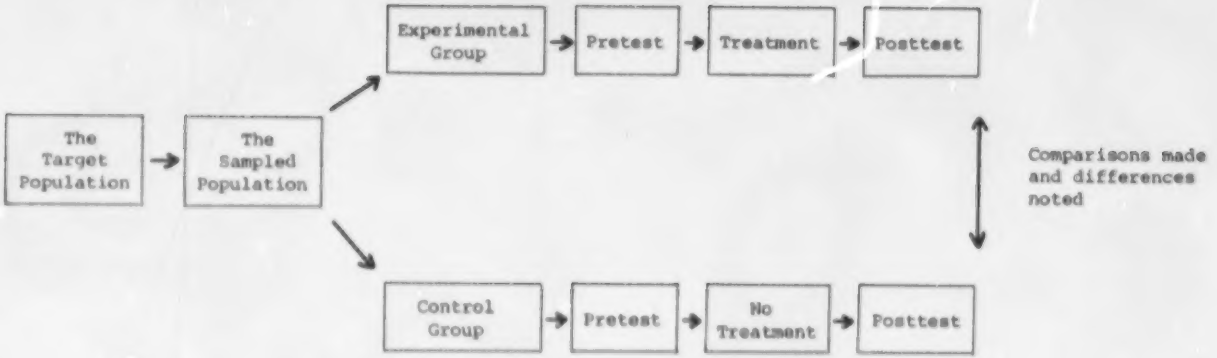

Figure 4. Model for evaluating workshops on "citizen participation in civic affairs" (adapted from Suchman, 1973)

4. Participants in an Adult Basic Education program in Winston-Salem.
5. Members of a "Senior Scholars" program in Greensboro.
6. Members of a chapter of the National Association of Retired School Personnel in Greensboro.
7. Residents of a public high rise retirement complex in Raleigh (control only). (See Figure 5)

A total of 140 people participated in the study and 111 completed usable schedules.

Following the selection of the groups for the study, a member of the research team met personally with each of the groups and explained the purpose of the project and asked for volunteers to participate in the experimental and control groups.

Experimental Procedures

Once the sample groups were selected the researchers negotiated with the groups and discussion leaders for the best time and place for the workshop sessions. Each of the groups selected a place and time most convenient and conducive to its learning. Discussion leaders were selected and trained by the research team.

The workshops consisted of seven sessions one and one-half to two hours in length. Within this time frame, the group leaders discussed general information and case studies and offered the participants time for discussion and questions. In addition, the participants in each workshop group were divided into two sub-groups and assigned a project to be presented during the sixth session. During the seventh session prominent

Figure 5. Distribution of workshop groups

local politicians were brought in as special resource people to answer questions and to engage in dialogue with the participants.

The subject matter material chosen for the workshops was a package of six pamphlets prepared by the United States Chamber of Commerce. The package, entitled "Action Course in Practical Politics," is a non-partisan, up-to-date (1976) and clearly written guide to the political process, especially party politics and volunteer groups. It was thought that this package of material would provide general information as well as skills and techniques with which the participants could become more informed, effective citizens. In addition, there is in the material the explicit charge that the political process at all levels needs involved people to be truly effective. Hence the participants were taught skills and techniques as well as being shown how their involvement could affect issues and outcomes.

Pretests were administered by the discussion leaders to both the experimental and control groups prior to the beginning of the workshop sessions. The pretest consisted of questions to elicit demographic data and three scales used to measure locus of control, life satisfaction and anomia. Following the workshop sessions, a posttest which consisted of the three scales only was administered to both the experimental and control groups.

Instrumentation and Data Collection

Instrumentation

A structured questionnaire was used to obtain personal and demographic data from respondents. The questionnaire elicited data relative to:

organizational participation, leisure activities, living arrangements, marital status, age, sex, level of education, family income level, race, religion, perceived health condition, retirement situation, educational activities, political participation and political knowledge (See Appendix B).

The primary instruments used for both pretests and posttests included Rotter's I-E Scale (Rotter, 1966), the Life Satisfaction Index Z (Neugarten, Havighurst, and Tobin, 1961), and Srole's Index of Anomia (1956).

To measure the perceived beliefs about the possibilities for control in his/her life, each individual was assessed by a modified version of Rotter's I-E Scale (1966). Initial modifications were made in accordance with the results of Gurin's (1975) factor analysis of the scale which reduced the number of items from 23 to 15. A second modification of the scale was adapted from Peters (1968). These latter changes involved making the items easily understood by very poor readers as well as highly educated respondents. Peters reworded the items to the extent of reducing the word difficulty level. Hence, the I-E scale utilized in this study, consisted of 15 forced choice items reworded into easy-to-read language.

Gurin's (1975) factor analysis identified five dimensions of control: success mobility, control ideology, interpersonal control, personal control and political control. For this study only the last four factors were investigated.

A belief in internal control, or the generalized expectancy that socio-environmental rewards can be affected by one's own actions is indicated by high scores on the Rotter Scale and the four dimensions of perceived control. Internal consistency estimates performed on the Rotter Scale have been relatively stable ranging from .64 (split-half techniques)

to .79 (Spearman-Brown formula). Reliability coefficients using the Kuler-Richardson formula ranged from .70 to .76 (Rotter, 1966; Peters, 1968).

In this study a mean was gained for the total scale as well as means for each of the four dimensions used. Total scores were also broken into three categories--high (12-15), medium (7-12) and low (0-7).

A measure of life satisfaction means an attempt to assess the perceived psychological well-being of an individual. The scale used in this study, the Life Satisfaction Index Z by Neugarten, Havighurst and Tobin (1961) is composed of 18 items. This scale was revised from the original LSIA (1961) following the item analysis by Adams (1969). Adams suggested that if two questions were omitted from the original scale, the LSIA's reliability would be improved. Scores of the LSIZ (see Appendix B) were obtained by a simple summation of the item scores. The range was from a possible low of zero to a possible high of 18. Reliability, measured by Wood, et. al. (1969) on a 13-item LSIZ with the Kuder-Richardson formula 21 "coefficient alpha", was .79. Validity of the 13-item LSIZ with the original Life Satisfaction Rating of Neugarten, Havighurst and Tobin (1961) was measured at .57. Following suggestions by Havighurst and Adams, these researchers used an 18-item version of the LSIZ. The items consist of cognitive and affective measures which seek to define the perceived discrepancy between desired feelings and actual affective states ranging from the perception of fulfillment to that of deprivation.

Well-satisfied perceptions are indicated by high scores on the index. For purposes of classification, three categories were formed--high life satisfaction (12-18), medium (7-12) and low (0-7).

Anomia is the psychological derivative of the sociological concept of anomie. Srole (1956, p. 711) viewed anomia as the "socio-psychological continuum referring to the individual's generalized pervasive sense of self-to-others belongingness versus self-to-others distance and alienation . . . Of central concern is the development of anomia in response to objective conditions of stressful malintegration in the social world." Anomia refers to people who feel alone, hopeless, unvalued, despairing, frustrated and malcontent. Srole's scale consists of five questions representing "internalized counterparts or reflections in the individual's life situation of conditions of social dsyfunction" (Srole, 1956, p. 712).

In this study, as in Srole's original research, a low score indicates a eunomic situation (positive feelings about one's self and relationship to society). Following the Cornell Scaling Techniques applied to the Srole Index by Bell (1956), three dichotomies and two trichotomies resulted. The scale's scores ranged from a possible low of zero to a possible high of 10. Two categories were formed: eunomic (0-4) and anomic (5-10). The questions comprising the scale and the scores assigned to the various response categories are as follows:

1. In spite of what some people say, the lot of the average man is getting worse.

   2 Strongly agree and agree

   0 Undecided, disagree, and strongly disagree

2. It's hardly fair to bring children into the world with the way things look for the future.

   2 Strongly agree and agree

   0 Undecided, disagree, and strongly disagree

3. Nowadays a person has to live pretty much for today and let tomorrow take care of itself.

   2 Strongly agree, agree and undecided

   1 Disagree

   0 Strongly disagree

4. These days a person doesn't really know who he can count on.

   2 Strongly agree and agree

   0 Undecided, disagree, and strongly disagree

5. There's little use writing to public officials because often they aren't really interested in the problems of the average citizen.

   2 Strongly agree and agree

   1 Undecided and disagree

   0 Strongly disagree

Data Collection

The structured questionnaires and the selected scales were administered by the discussion leaders to all participants in both the experimental and control groups. Following the workshops, the three scales were re-administered to all participants and composed the posttest.

Analysis of Data

Processing of data and statistical procedures were carried out at the Triangle Universities' Computation Center using the Statistical Analysis System (SAS). Procedures used were determined through consultation with Herbert Kirk, Statistician, North Carolina State University.

Data analysis involved five stages: (1) identification of personal and situational characteristics of the respondents from which a profile

of the sample could be developed, (2) determination of respondents' pre-workshop levels of anomia, life satisfaction and locus of control, (3) determination of relationships between personal and situational characteristics of respondents and their pre-workshop levels of anomia, life satisfaction and locus of control, (4) determination of the post-workshop level of anomia, life satisfaction and locus of control, and (5) determining the significance of differences in respondents' pretest and posttest scores on anomia, life satisfaction and locus of control, both experimental and control.

All instruments in which the data were grossly incomplete or improperly filled in were discarded. In addition, those instruments were voided for all respondents who did not complete both the pretest and posttest. These deletions resulted in a final total of 111 usable schedules.

The major statistical techniques employed were Pearson's product moment coefficient of correlation, least squares means analysis and the t test. The .05 level of significance was used throughout the study.

A least squares (LS) analysis was used to perform the analysis of variance to establish F values for the significance of the relationship between the various dependent variables and the independent variables (Searle, 1971). This analysis was appropriate because the research involved a survey-type experiment. In survey-type experiments, it is not possible to control or balance out all treatment factors or variables; therefore, LS analysis is used to adjust for the unbalanced effect of the data. In presenting the data, LS means is used. These LS means are the estimated treatment effects after adjusting for the effects of the other variables involved.

RESULTS

The major results of the study are presented in this chapter. In the first section, a profile of the participants is presented. The remainder of the chapter is devoted to hypotheses testing.

Profile of Participants

The sample consisted of 111 persons 60 years of age or older residing in the Piedmont region of North Carolina. Age of the respondents ranged from 60 to 95 years with a median age of 72 years (Table 1).

Forty-three percent of the respondents lived in retirement complexes while 29 percent lived in their own homes, 16 percent resided in a nursing home, and 12 percent lived in apartments.

In terms of marital status, the largest percent of the respondents were widowed (52 percent). Twenty-seven percent were married, 11 percent never married, and 10 percent were divorced or separated.

The ratio of females to males was 77 and 23 percent respectively.

The range of educational level was from less than 4th grade to the doctoral degree. Thirty-seven percent of the respondents had completed eight years or less of formal education and 29 percent had completed four years or more of college.

The ratio of whites to nonwhites in the sample was 62 to 38 percent.

Annual family income of respondents ranged from below $1,000 to over $15,000. Two respondents reported incomes of over $20,000. The highest percentage of respondents reported incomes ranging from $3,000 to $5,999 (42 percent).

Respondents were asked to rate their overall health as excellent, good, fair, or poor. The greatest percentage rated their health as "good" (48 percent). Only eight percent rated their health "poor."

Table 1. Frequency distribution of respondents by personal and situational characteristics (N = 111)

Characteristic	N	%	Characteristic	N	%
Living Arrangements			**Overall Health Rating**		
In retirement complex	48	43	Excellent	24	22
In own home	32	29	Good	54	48
In nursing home	18	16	Fair	24	22
In apartment	13	12	Poor	9	8
Total	111	100	Total	111	100
Marital Status			**Age**		
Married	30	27	60-64 years	18	16
Never married	12	11	65-69	33	30
Widowed	58	52	70-74	20	18
Divorced	5	5	75-79	21	19
Separated	6	5	80 and over	19	17
Total	111	100	Total	111	100
Family Income			**Religion**		
Below $1,000	6	5	Methodist	20	18
$1,000-$2,999	22	20	Baptist	42	38
$3,000-$5,999	46	42	Presbyterian	11	10
$6,000-$8,999	13	12	Other Protestant	26	23
$9,000-$11,999	9	8	Jewish	8	7
$12,000-$14,999	8	7	Catholic	2	2
$15,000 and over	7	6	Other or none	2	2
Total	111	100	Total	111	100
Education			**Sex**		
Less than 4th grade	15	14	Female	85	77
5th to 8th grade	25	23	Male	26	23
9th to 11th grade	9	8	Total	111	100
High school diploma	18	16			
2 yrs. of college	11	10	**Race**		
4 yrs. of college	17	15	White	69	62
Master's degree or more	16	14	Nonewhite	42	38
Total	111	100	Total	111	100

In terms of religious affiliation, 38 percent of the respondents were Baptists, 18 percent were Methodists, 10 percent were Presbyterian, and 23 percent were members of other Protestant groups. Seven percent

were Jewish, two percent were Catholic and only two percent indicated other or no religious affiliation.

Respondents in the study participated in a variety of organizations and groups at least once per month. Greatest participation was in the church (90 percent). An additional 52 percent participated in senior citizen clubs, 29 percent in men's/women's clubs, 17 percent in civic clubs and 15 percent in professional or academic organizations (Appendix Table 1). When grouped by level of organizational participation, 14 percent participated in more than three organizations, 55 percent participated in two to three and 28 percent participated in only one organization. Three percent participated in no organizations (Appendix Table 2).

Participation in educational activities was greater than anticipated. Thirty-four percent of the respondents indicated that they had been involved in self-planned learning projects during the past year. Involvement in specific educational activities included the following: Religion - 47 percent, hobbies and recreation - 34 percent, general education - 30 percent, current events and public affairs - 28 percent, personal development - 27 percent, and home and family life - 14 percent (Appendix Table 3). When grouped by level of participation in educational activities, 13 percent were classified under high activity (more than three activities), 39 percent medium activity (two to three activities), 23 percent low activity (one activity) and 25 percent no activity (Appendix Table 4).

Leisure activities participated in by respondents ranged from "just sitting in the sun" to such strenuous games as "bowling, golf and tennis." The most common leisure activity was watching television (91 percent). Other activities with high participation were: reading newspapers or magazines - 84 percent, talking with friends on the telephone - 82 percent,

visiting with friends - 68 percent, reading books - 67 percent, doing housework or cooking - 67 percent, and just being alone - 53 percent (Appendix Table 5).

Forty-four percent of the respondents participated in nine or more leisure activities, 49 percent participated in six to eight activities and only seven percent participated in five activities or less (Appendix Table 6).

Respondents were asked to indicate the nature of their occupations prior to retirement. The responses were categorized under six major classifications, i.e. professional, manager, clerical, operative, service, and housewife. The responses were fairly well distributed over the six categories with the greatest percentage (28 percent) falling within the professional and the lowest percentage (7 percent) falling within the manager categories, respectfully. Ten percent did not respond (Appendix Table 7).

Political activities of the respondents ranged from no activity to merely voting to being a candidate for elective office. Activities receiving the greatest number of responses were: voting, mentioning preference for candidates in conversation and attempting to convince people to vote for a particular candidate or issue (Appendix Table 8). When grouped by level of political activity, nine percent were rated high (more than eight activities), 26 percent rated medium (four to eight activities), 35 percent rated low (two to three activities), 5 percent rated as voting specialist (vote only), and 15 percent participated in no political activities (Appendix Table 9).

Testing the Hypotheses

The data are analyzed under the headings of six hypotheses which evolved from the conceptual framework and the review of related literature. The first three hypotheses focus on the relationship between personal and situational characteristics of the sample respondents and pretest levels of anomia, life satisfaction and locus of control (internal-external control). The second three hypotheses are devoted to the changes in levels of anomia, life satisfaction and internal-external control within the experimental group as compared with the control group as influenced by the workshops. For each interpretation the hypothesis is stated in the null form.

> Hypothesis I - There is no significant relationship between respondent's pretest level of anomia and the following personal and situational characteristics: organizational activities, leisure activities, educational activities, political activities, political knowledge, housing, marital status, age, sex, education, income, race, religion, self-rated health, job prior to retirement, forced retirement, desire to work, satisfaction with not working, self-planned learning activities, life satisfaction and internal-external locus of control levels.

The literature shows anomia to mean a generalized and pervasive sense of loneliness, isolation, despair and hopelessness. Examination of the Pearson Product Moment Correlation Coefficients between the independent variables and anomia proved very informative, consistent with the research, and very significant for many of the variables.

Table 2 shows the results of the correlation analysis. (In this study, the higher the anomia score, the more anomic, isolated or despairing the individual.) In descending order of the strength of the correlation, ranking as most strongly related was education ($r = -.46$) and one's level of political knowledge ($r = -.45$). These significant relationships ($p < .001$) indicate that as one's level of education, internal control

and political knowledge increases, one's anomia score decreases, i.e. individuals tend to become less anomic and hopeless. In these three strong correlations one can begin to notice the relationships between knowledge and awareness of control-relevant information and their possible association with feelings of belonging and integration.

Also significant in their relationship to anomia were the variables political participation ($r = -.41$), income ($r = -.40$), race ($r = .29$), life satisfaction ($r = -.24$), amount of leisure activity ($r = -.24$), and the type of housing situation ($r = -.24$). These results were consistent with the research studies of alienation, social learning theory and anomia which show that the relationships of generalized expectancies of successful integration are reflective of one's belief that learning has an effect on one's assuming control over actions around him/her. Of further interest were the strong relationships these variables had among themselves.

(For purposes of clarification it must be restated that for the variable race the direction was from white to nonwhite. For the variable housing, the direction was from living in your own home to renting an apartment to living in a retirement complex to residing in a nursing home. See Appendix B.)

A general linear regression model (least squares means analysis) was used to measure the impact of each of the independent variables on the total adjusted means. In essence, this procedure gives an F value and a probability of significance as explanations of the impact of the independent variables on the variance in means score after adjusting for the effects of the other variables involved.

Table 2. Pearson's Product Moment correlation coefficients of independent and dependent variables

Variables	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22
1. Org Act		.49***	.62***	.61***	.49***	-.35***		-.25**		.22*									.21*		.23*	.28*
2. Leis Act			.65***	.58***	.30***			-.32***		.21*										-.24*		.37**
3. Ed Act				.57***	.37***	-.26**	-.21*	-.21*								.26**						.22*
4. Pol Act					.64***	-.43***	-.24*	-.19*		.35***	.35***			-.24**			.23*		.21*	-.41***	.27**	.34***
5. Pol Knowl						-.41***	-.25**			.63***	.49***	-.27**		-.27**	-.30**		.25**		.25**	-.45***	.30**	.47***
6. Housing							.41***	.41***	-.20		-.37***	-.34***				-.20*				-.24**	-.23**	
7. Mar Stat										-.20*	-.43***											
8. Age									-.39**			-.49***										
9. Sex										-.19*		-.27**		-.32***								
10. Educ											.61***	.47***			-.47***					-.51***	.23*	.48***
11. Income												-.36**		-.23*	-.30**					-.40***	.37**	.30**
12. Race													.20**	.24*	.22*					.28**		
13. Religion																						
14. Health																					-.20*	-.24*
15. Job Prior Ret																						
16. Forced Ret																	.35***					
17. Still Work																		-.60***	-.24*			
18. Ret Not Work																						
19. Self-Dir Learn																						
20. Anomia																					-.24**	-.46***
21. Life Satisfaction																						.56***
22. I-E																						

***p < .001; **p < .01; *p < .05.

Table 3 lists the independent variables used in the regression model, the F values and the probability that the F value is significant. As seen in the table, the variables in the model accounted for 78 percent ($r^2 = .78$) of the variance in the anomia score. Significantly affecting the explanation of the anomia score were the variables age ($P < .01$), internal-external control ($P < .05$) and whether one was forced to retire ($P < .05$). Very close to significance and having some influence on anomia were political knowledge and marital status.

Considering the high correlations between anomia and many of the independent variables, it is interesting to note how the regression was affected by the high correlations. Of those variables with high product moment correlations, only the internal-external control score proved to have a significant effect on one's anomia score. It appears that when the effects of the independent variables are adjusted, most of the highly correlated variables are washed out leaving only those variables which have significant predictive value.

An analysis of Table 4 shows the predicted least square means for the discrete items which made up the independent variables. Interesting in this table are the curvilinear relationships between expected means and the levels of measurement among most of the variables. Of special concern were the predicted means listed under housing, sex, race, forced retirement and levels of internal-external control. Linear directions were established in these variables, e.g. nursing home respondents were much more anomic than those who lived in their own homes with little constraint; males were more anomic than females in this sample; whites were more anomic than nonwhites in this sample; those forced to retire were less anomic than those who voluntarily retired; and those highest

Table 3. Least squares analysis of the effect of selected personal and situational factors upon feelings of anomia among older adults--pretest level (N = 111)

Characteristic	df	SS	F-Value	P > F
Total (R^2 = .78)	67	790.08	2.34	.0018
Level of Organizational Activity	3	25.26	1.67	.1870
Level of Leisure Activity	2	1.[illegible]	.14	.8682
Level of Educational Activity	3	3.29	.22	.8836
Level of Political Activity	4	6.05	.30	.8758
Level of Political Knowledge	8	85.30	2.12	.0547
Housing	3	13.76	.91	.4437
Marital Status	3	39.71	2.63	.0623
Age	4	30.49	4.00	.0076**
Sex	1	6.71	1.33	.2545
Education	6	18.45	.61	.7204
Income	6	26.32	.87	.5238
Race	1	1.51	.30	.5862
Religion	6	16.93	.56	.7590
Self-Rated Health	3	7.65	.51	.6797
Job Prior to Retirement	6	41.94	1.39	.2411
Forced Retirement?	1	21.01	4.17	.0472*
Satisfied Not Working?	1	8.65	1.72	.1968
Desire to Keep Working?	1	.17	.03	.852[illegible]
Self-Directed Learning	1	2.14	.43	.5172
Internal-External Levels	2	51.43	5.11	.0102*
Life Satisfaction Levels	2	21.06	2.09	.1358

** $P < .01$.

* $P < .05$.

Table 4. Pretest least squares mean scores, anomia, life satisfaction and internal-external control by personal and situational characteristics of respondents (N = 111)

	Anomia	LS	I-E
ORG ACT (N)			
High (16)	5.20	10.09	10.05
Med (11)	7.03	9.84	11.58
Low (31)	6.37	9.37	11.80
None (3)	3.57	13.86	8.49
LEIS ACT			
High	5.34	10.96	11.26
Med	5.71	9.67	10.07
Low	5.59	11.74	10.11
ED ACT			
High	5.82	10.64	9.94
Med	5.12	10.98	10.57
Low	5.59	12.35	11.16
None	5.64	9.20	10.26
POL ACT			
High	4.86	12.87	10.03
Med	6.23	9.65	11.29
Low	5.60	10.01	10.73
US	5.49	9.34	10.27
None	5.54	12.09	10.09
POL KNOWL			
0	5.85	12.15	8.63
1	7.70	12.13	11.30
2	5.13	9.91	10.33
3	4.67	10.90	9.32
4	2.81	12.30	9.44
5	7.34	9.52	11.94
6	5.24	10.28	10.98
7	7.94	10.12	11.59
8	3.23	9.92	10.82

continued

Table 4 (continued)

	Anomia	LS	I-E
HOUSING			
Own Home	4.23	11.67	8.94
Rent Apt	5.86	11.39	9.62
Retirement Complex	5.91	10.43	11.69
Nursing Home	6.18	9.68	11.68
MARITAL STATUS			
Never Married	5.18	9.63	10.62
Married	3.66	11.09	10.54
Widowed	5.47	11.79	9.91
Divorced/Separated	7.87	10.65	10.86
AGE			
60-64	5.71	11.43	10.67
65-69	7.19	9.08	11.20
70-74	4.51	11.32	10.31
75-79	4.06	11.05	9.97
80 and over	6.26	11.07	10.27
SEX			
Female	5.02	11.91	10.59
Male	6.07	9.67	10.38
EDUCATION			
Less than 4th	6.92	10.87	9.48
5-8	5.65	9.97	9.31
9-11	6.24	11.33	11.76
High School Diploma	4.76	11.90	10.34
2 Yrs College	5.74	10.70	10.41
4 Yrs College	4.74	10.41	10.97
Advanced Degree	4.76	10.36	11.15

continued

Table 4 (continued)

	Anomia	LS	I-E
INCOME			
Below $1,000	5.01	8.48	8.91
1,000- 2,999	6.29	11.04	11.38
3,000- 5,999	6.25	9.19	9.39
6,000- 8,999	5.80	11.05	9.94
9,000-11,999	4.98	11.23	12.14
12,000-14,999	4.01	12.44	9.91
15,000 over	6.59	12.11	11.72
RACE			
White	5.87	9.69	10.56
Non-White	5.22	11.89	10.40
RELIGION			
Methodist	5.62	12.33	10.06
Baptist	5.29	11.53	11.04
Presbyterian	5.18	10.13	9.37
Other Protestant	4.84	11.75	9.48
Jewish	3.41	10.60	8.48
Catholic	6.71	9.30	9.93
None	7.77	9.90	15.03
SELF-RATED HEALTH			
Excellent	5.59	10.97	10.76
Good	5.12	12.45	10.40
Fair	6.22	9.76	10.20
Poor	5.25	9.98	10.57
JOB BEFORE RETIREMENT			
Professional	6.28	12.07	10.64
Managers	4.57	11.13	10.40
Clerical	7.08	10.60	10.54
Operative	6.10	9.58	11.90
Service	6.15	9.58	10.82
Housewife	3.90	11.51	9.48
No Response	4.74	11.08	9.61

continued

Table 4 (continued)

	Anomia	LS	I-E
FORCED RETIREMENT?			
Yes	4.73	10.59	9.71
No	6.36	10.99	11.26
SATISFIED NOT WORKING?			
Yes	6.02	11.05	10.78
No	5.06	10.53	10.19
DESIRE TO WORK?			
Yes	5.48	11.29	10.46
No	5.61	10.29	10.51
SELF-DIRECTED LEARNING			
Yes	5.31	9.87	10.14
No	5.78	11.70	10.83
I-E CATEGORIES			
High	3.33	13.34	
Med	5.24	9.84	
Low	8.06	9.19	
LIFE SATISFACTION CATEGORIES			
High	6.43		11.33
Med	5.07		10.49
Low	5.13		9.63
ANOMIA CATEGORIES			
Anomic		11.31	9.40
Eunomic		10.27	11.57

in internal control were the most eunomic. It is interesting to note also the anomia scores for the variables, age. The age-cohort group with the highest anomia score was those aged 65-69, followed by a strong direction toward eunomia until age 80. Perhaps retirement and the trauma of adjustment to new roles accounted for this interesting pattern.

Because the researchers did find many significant correlations between these variables and anomia and because the regression model accounted for 78 percent of the variance in the dependent variable, anomia (three variables--age, internal-external control, and forced retirement--seemed to account for a high percentage of the variance), Hypothesis I was rejected.

> Hypothesis II - There is no significant relationship between respondents' pretest level of life satisfaction and the following personal and situational characteristics: organizational activities, leisure activities, educational activities, political activities, political knowledge, housing, marital status, age, sex, education, income, race, religion, self-rated health, job prior to retirement, forced retirement, desire to work, satisfaction with not working, self-planned learning activities, levels of anomia, and levels of internal-external control.

As stated in the review of literature, the construct of life satisfaction is closely related to measures of perceived well-being, i.e. psychological satisfaction with personal, social environmental and situational contexts. The correlational analysis (Table 2) showed significant relationships between [illegible]tors in one's social environment as they affect the individual. Most significantly related [illegible] the mean life satisfaction score of the respondents was his/her score on the internal-external control index ($r = .56$). This high positive relationship ($P < .001$) is important in that the major premise of this study was that internally controlled people tend to be more satisfied with

themselves, their self-image and their late life roles than those individuals with external expectations of control.

Following the internal-external score in order of strength of relationship were political knowledge ($r = .30$), income ($r = .28$), political participation ($r = .27$), one's anomia score ($r = -.24$), housing ($r = -.23$), organizational activities ($r = .23$), education ($r = .22$), and self-rated health ($r = -.20$). In examining these correlations, one can again see, as with anomia, the relationship to directionality that knowledge, income, education and political participation have on feelings of satisfaction with present affairs.

Of special interest was the correlation between life satisfaction and housing. In anomia, a negative relationship with housing occurred indicating the tendency for anomia to increase in situations of less constraint. In life satisfaction, the negative relationship indicates a tendency for life satisfaction scores to increase as housing situations provide an environment of low constraint. These relationships are hardly generalizable due to the nature of the housing variables used in this study and their nominal ordering in the equation. In other words, there was only one housing situation which had full constraint over its residents--the nursing home. The other three situations were without major constraints and scores varied widely from group to group.

In the least squares means analysis of the dependent variable, life satisfaction, only the individual's internal-external score was even close to being a significant explainer of the variance among life satisfaction scores (See Table 5). In other words, the impact of any particular variable on one's life satisfaction score was less than significant at the .05 level. What is significant is the amount of variance accounted

Table 5. Least squares analysis of the effect of selected personal and situational factors upon feelings of life satisfaction among older adults--pretest level (N = 111)

Characteristic	df	SS	F-Value	P > F
Total (R^2 = .63)	66	1017.85	1.12	.3451
Level of Organizational Activity	3	21.16	.51	.6752
Level of Leisure Activity	2	23.19	.84	.4368
Level of Educational Activity	3	40.03	.97	.4148
Level of Political Activity	4	60.48	1.10	.3682
Level of Political Knowledge	8	25.62	.23	.9826
Housing	3	8.42	.20	.8929
Marital Status	3	23.78	.58	.6331
Age	4	36.83	.67	.6161
Sex	1	30.67	2.23	.1422
Education	6	21.35	.26	.9529
Income	6	42.00	.51	.7978
Race	1	17.84	1.30	.2606
Religion	6	25.25	.31	.9303
Self-Rated Health	3	45.87	1.11	.3541
Job Prior to Retirement	6	21.44	.26	.9524
Forced Retirement?	1	1.12	.08	.7765
Satisfied Not Working?	1	2.38	.17	.6787
Desire to Keep Working?	1	10.78	.78	.3806
Self-Directed Learning	1	33.25	.42	.1269
Internal-External Levels	2	78.20	2.85	.0688
Anomia Levels	1	6.74	.49	.4872

for by the list of independent variables in the regression model (r^2 = .63). To explain this much variance without identifying any significant predictive variables indicates that for life satisfaction, the strong interrelationships of the variables preclude predictive value.

A glance at Table 4 shows the least squares means for the discrete items within each of the independent variables for the person's life satisfaction score. From these predicted means, no one pattern emerges. There seem to be curvilinear patterns for a number of variables: organizational activities, leisure activities, educational activity, political activity, political knowledge, marital status, age, education, self-rated health, and occupation. Again the age-cohort group, 65-69, showed up as having been negatively affected during the years immediate following retirement. The analysis showed that those in housing situations of no or small constraint scored higher in life satisfaction than those in nursing homes. Those not forced to retire scored slightly higher than those forced. Those who would like to still be working scored slightly higher than those who said "no". Those who were satisfied not working scored higher than those who were not satisfied. The variable, internal-external control, provided a linear relationship such that the higher the internal control the higher the life satisfaction. Females were more satisfied than males. Nonwhites were more satisfied than whites.

From the many relationships found in the correlation analysis and because the regression model accounted for 63 percent of the variance, Hypothesis II was rejected even though some variables were found to be unrelated at any significant level.

Hypothesis III - There is no significant relationship between respondent's pretest level of internal-external control and the following personal and situational characteristics: organizational activities, political participation, leisure activities, educational activities, political knowledge, housing, marital status, age, sex, education, income, race, religion, self-rated health, job prior to retirement, forced retirement, desire to work, satisfaction with not working, self-planned learning activities, life satisfaction and anomia.

The analysis of the internal-external control construct formed the major emphasis of this study. Based on the review of literature and conceptual framework, it was the objective of this project to provide the participants with generalized expectancies for the value of, necessity for and salience of their perceptions of internal control. It was felt that internality was so consistently related to efficacy, adjustment, adaptation, participation and satisfaction that it should be the focus of change. It was felt that if one became more internal, one could perceive more control relevant situations and act to ameliorate any conflict, discomfort or injustice.

Pearson Product Moment Correlations between internal-external control scores and the independent variables were examined for their strength of relationship. A great many variables were found to be significant (See Table 2). The variable most strongly related to I-E was the mean life satisfaction score ($r = .56$). As discussed under the results of the analysis of life satisfaction, such a strong relationship tends to support the construct validity of the I-E scale.

Other strongly related variables ($P < .001$) included education ($r = .48$), political knowledge ($r = .47$), anomia ($r = -.46$), and political participation ($r = .34$). Once again the implications from the strength of relationship are that knowledge and activity tend to dominate the relationships between variables. Significant ($P < .01$) but to a lesser degree

were the variables income ($r = .30$), organizational activities ($r = .28$) and leisure activities ($r = .27$). Significant at $P < .05$ was the variable educational activities ($r = .22$).

The differences between the variables significant at each level are worthy of comment. It seems that those variables or activity levels most related to the perception of expectancies for control and power are the most strongly related to I-E scores, i.e. life satisfaction, political knowledge, and political participation. Concomitantly, those activities ostensibly less related to dimensions of control and power, i.e. leisure and organizational activities (of which church and senior clubs are the dominant mode), are less significantly related to the internal-external score.

In the least squares means analysis (Table 6), a number of variables proved significant in predicting I-E scores. Using the general linear model, an R square score of .81 was achieved (a remarkably high percentage of the variance explained). The variable with an F value reaching significance at the .01 level was the effect of the continuum, eunomic to anomic. Even with a strong correlation between anomia scores and internal-external scores, the relationship stood up after taking into account the effects of the other variables. Significant at the .05 level were the variables housing and forced retirement. These variables were not significantly correlated with each other, but when entered into the regression model, did significantly affect internal-external scores. These results are consistent with the literature which shows housing and compulsory retirement as significant predictors of locus of control. Almost significant, but of special concern, were levels of income, life satisfaction, and leisure.

Table 6. Least squares analysis of the effect of selected personal and situational factors upon the feelings of internal-external locus of control among older adults--pretest level (N = 111)

Characteristic	df	SS	F-Value	P > F
Total (R^2 = .81)	66	721.44	2.77	.0003
Level of Organizational Activity	3	19.59	1.66	.1904
Level of Leisure Activity	2	16.29	2.06	.1390
Level of Educational Activity	3	6.47	.55	.6531
Level of Political Activity	4	9.98	.63	.6418
Level of Political Knowledge	8	45.17	1.43	.2104
Housing	3	41.71	3.53	.0225*
Marital Status	3	1.22	.10	.9580
Age	4	9.08	.58	.6819
Sex	1	.24	.06	.8041
Education	6	20.85	.88	.5166
Income	6	46.12	1.95	.0939
Race	1	.09	.02	.8761
Religious Preference	6	40.35	1.71	.1424
Self-Rated Health	3	1.34	.11	.9521
Job Prior to Retirement	6	22.05	.93	.4818
Forced Retirement?	1	18.48	4.69	.0359*
Satisfied Not Working?	1	3.33	.84	.3635
Desire to Keep Working?	1	.02	.01	.9373
Self-Directed Learning?	1	4.93	1.26	.2694
Life Satisfaction Levels	2	18.27	2.32	.1106
Anomia Levels	1	35.31	8.95	.0045**

** $P < .01$.

* $P < .05$.

An examination of the predicted means scores (see Table 4) from which the regression model comes shows some inconsistent and interesting results: persons with low levels of political activity and educational activity scored higher internality than those with high levels. These scores are not consistent with the research which shows that activity enhances levels of internality. The researchers feel that in this analysis, the number of respondents in the high categories of activity was too small to provide a strong enough predictive measure (see Appendix Tables 9 and 10). Further, the differences in predicted means between the high and low activity people were not very large.

Also of interest and concern is the predicted means analysis which showed that people in the nursing home scored higher in internality than those who were not institutionalized. This predicted result differs from other research studies, the actual mean scores for the various housing groups in the present study, and the correlational directions established earlier. The researchers have no adequate explanation for this other than that in this analysis, the housing categories were not logically consistent, such that a community based person of high socioeconomic status should not necessarily be categorized with a community based respondent of low socioeconomic status as was done in grouping community participants from middle, upper-middle, white groups from Greensboro with the community participants from lower, lower middle nonwhite groups in Winston-Salem. Also, the constraint freedom dimension is possibly weak due to the fact that living in your own home does not guarantee a low constraint situation. Indeed, the groups in this study that were non-institutionalized were so different demographically as to confound any general statement that low constraint housing situations enhance feelings of internal control.

Of interest also were the expected directions established in leisure activities, organizational activities, education, forced retirement, desire to still be working, life satisfaction, and anomia, such that as leisure activities increased, as formal education was higher, as people chose to retire voluntarily, as people desired to keep working, as life satisfaction scores rose, as anomia scores decreased and as organizational activities decreased, the individual scored higher on internality.

Because internal-external control was so significantly related with so many variables, a breakdown into the four examined dimensions of I-E was helpful in elaborating the strength of the I-E construct. The four dimensions examined were control ideology, interpersonal control, personal control, and political control. Table 7 shows the relationship between the I-E dimensions and significantly related variables. Of special interest was the strength of personal control and political control in relation to activity levels, education, income, life satisfaction and anomia. Also of interest were the different correlations of the dimensions with the overall I-E score. With a correlation of .85, the dimension of personal control seemed to be the major factor in the I-E construct.

Because of high correlations with many variables and because a high amount of variance was explained with the list of independent variables, Hypothesis III was rejected.

> Hypothesis IV - There will be no significant change in mean anomia scores from pretest to posttest for either the experimental or control group.

In order to test Hypothesis IV, the t-test was employed using unadjusted mean anomia scores. The formula used was as follows:

$$t = \frac{\bar{y}_{pre} - \bar{y}_{post}}{\sqrt{\frac{var_{pre}}{n} + \frac{var_{post}}{n}}}$$

Table 7. Significant product moment correlations between personal and situational characteristics of respondents and subdimensions of the internal-external control scale

Characteristic		I-E and Subdimensions				Total I-E Score
		Control Ideology	Interpersonal Control	Personal Control	Political Control	
Organ Act	1			.26**	.21*	.28**
Pol Act	2		.20*	.28**	.28**	.34***
Ed Act	3			.19*	.21*	.22*
Leis Act	4			.19*	.24*	.27**
Pol Knowl	5	.33***	.26**	.37***	.36***	.47***
	6					
	7					
	8					
Sex	9	-.22*				
	10	.35***	.35***	.39***	.26**	.48***
	11			.25**	.26**	.29**
Race	12				-.21*	
	13					
	14		-.23*			-.24*
	15		-.20*			
	16					
	17					
	18					
	19					
Life Satis	20	.44***	.38***	.48***	.26**	.56***
Anomia	21	-.33***		-.38***	-.41***	-.46***
I-E	22	.75***	.56***	.85***	.61***	

*** $P < .001$.

** $P < .01$.

* $P < .05$.

Table 8 shows the mean pretest and posttest anomia scores, variance, and t values for the total group and location groups. Figure 6 depicts graphically the changes in anomia from pretest to posttest for the total group (experimental and control). There was an increase in the anomia level within the control group from 4.83 at the pretest to 5.50 at the posttest. The difference, however, was not significant at the .05 level. The experimental group, as was expected, showed a decrease in anomia from the pretest to the posttest (5.24 to 4.87) but the difference was not significant and therefore the change could not be attributed to the effect of the workshops.

An examination of the scores by location group revealed the same general trend, i.e. the control groups, generally, showed an increase in anomia from pretest to posttest and the experimental groups showed a decrease in anomia. However, there was one major exception: The control group at location III exhibited a significant increase in anomia. The group moved from a relatively high anomia mean score of 7.20 at pretest to a much higher score of 9.60 at the posttest. In general, group location seemed to have little impact on the changes in anomia that occurred from pretest to posttest. The hypothesis was retained.

> Hypothesis V - There will be no significant change in mean life satisfaction scores from pretest to posttest for either the experimental or control group.

As shown in Table 9, the t-tests revealed no significant differences between pretest and posttest life satisfaction scores for either the experimental or control group. The control group showed a slight decrease in life satisfaction while the experimental showed a slight increase (Figure 7). The trend was found to be similar when the data were examined by location group. Apparently the workshops had little impact

Table 8. Mean scores anomia, pretest, posttest, variance and t values by experimental and control groups

	Anomia				
	Pretest		Posttest		
Group	$\bar{Y}$	Var	$\bar{Y}$	Var	t
Total Group					
Control (N=48)	4.83	8.40	5.50	11.83	1.03
Exp (N=63)	5.24	9.80	4.87	8.79	.67
Group I					
Control (N=5)	6.20	2.20	6.40	2.30	.21
Exp (N=13)	6.92	1.74	6.23	6.02	.89
Group II					
Control (N=10)	2.10	8.77	2.20	2.62	.09
Exp (N=15)	3.73	7.49	3.47	6.69	.25
Group III					
Control (N=10)	7.20	2.84	9.60	1.60	3.50*
Exp (N=14)	5.50	11.80	4.26	3.30	1.19
Group IV					
Control (N=6)	3.00	2.80	6.50	9.50	2.44
Exp (N=9)	2.55	4.02	2.22	2.19	.39
Group V					
Control (N=7)	5.43	3.62	4.86	4.14	.54
Exp (N=12)	7.00	11.09	7.83	8.33	.65

*Significant at .05 level.

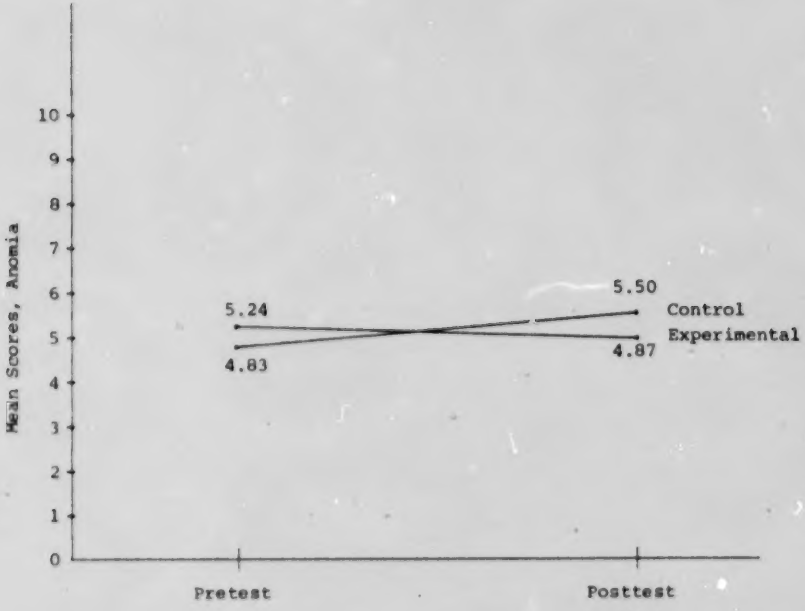

Figure 6. Anomia mean scores pretest and posttest for experimental and control groups (N = 111)

Table 9. Mean scores life satisfaction, pretest, posttest, variance and t values by experimental and control groups

	Life Satisfaction				
	Pretest		Posttest		
Group	$\bar{Y}$	Var	$\bar{Y}$	Var	t
Total Group					
Control (N=48)	11.50	16.30	11.00	18.98	.58
Exp (N=63)	10.48	13.35	11.35	13.55	1.33
Group I					
Control (N=5)	7.80	1.70	5.20	11.7	1.58
Exp (N=13)	9.00	14.66	10.38	15.42	.90
Group II					
Control (N=10)	14.80	5.51	15.30	6.01	.46
Exp (N=15)	10.81	16.98	11.67	15.81	.54
Group III					
Control (N=10)	10.10	11.21	9.60	1.60	.96
Exp (N=14)	11.71	9.91	13.50	14.73	1.36
Group IV					
Control (N=6)	11.50	19.50	7.83	26.16	1.32
Exp (N=9)	12.22	3.44	12.00	6.00	.22
Group V					
Control (N=7)	12.29	21.90	11.85	9.14	1.33
Exp (N=12)	8.83	13.24	9.00	4.18	.22

*Significant at .05 level.

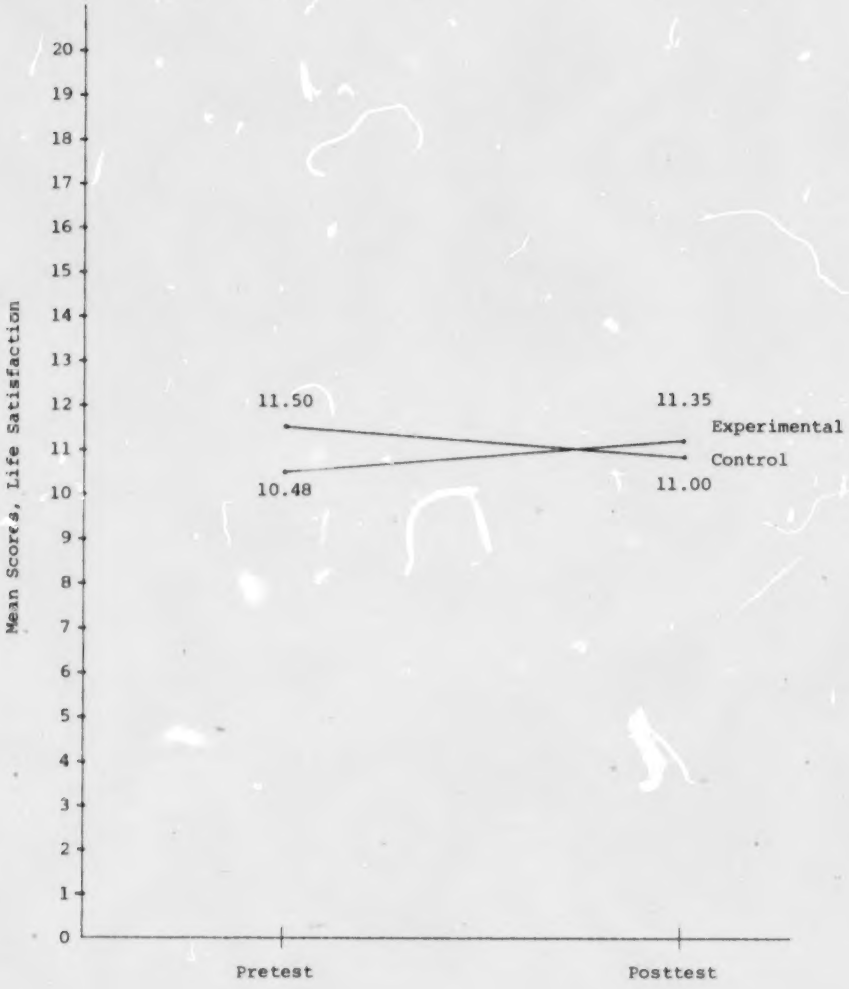

Figure 7. Life satisfaction mean scores pretest and posttest for experimental and control groups (N = 111)

upon the level of life satisfaction of participants. Hypothesis V was retained.

> Hypothesis VI - There will be no significant change in mean internal-external control scores from pretest to posttest for either the experimental or control group.

Table 10 shows the mean internal-external control scores, variance and t values for the total group and location groups. As depicted in Figure 8, there was a decrease in internal control within the control group and an increase in internal control within the experimental group from pretest to posttest. The increase within the experimental group was significant at the .05 level. The change in the control group was negative and not significant.

The changes in internal control within location groups followed the same general pattern of the total group, i.e. an increase in internal control for the experimental groups and a decrease for the control groups. Changes in internal-external control scores for the experimental location groups III and IV approached significance.

The fact that the analysis of data indicated a significant difference in internal-external control from pretest to posttest for the experimental group led the researchers to examine three of the subdimensions of the I-E scale, i.e. control ideology, personal control, and political control, for differences. The fourth subdimension, interpersonal control, was not examined because of insufficient data. Appendix Tables 11, 12 and 13 show the mean pretest, posttest and variance for each of the three subdimensions by experimental and control groups.

The location group III experimental group showed a significant increase in control ideology from pretest to posttest. None of the other experimental groups and none of the control groups exhibited significant changes.

Table 10. Mean scores internal-external control, pretest, posttest, variance and t values by experimental and control groups

Group	Internal-External Control				
	Pretest		Posttest		
	$\bar{Y}$	Var	$\bar{Y}$	Var	t
Total Group					
Control (N=48)	11.45	5.32	11.12	8.34	.62
Exp (N=63)	10.89	10.26	12.09	8.96	2.17*
Group I					
Control (N=5)	9.00	2.50	7.80	5.70	.93
Exp (N=13)	8.54	7.94	9.38	7.76	.76
Group II					
Control (N=10)	13.40	4.49	13.20	3.07	.23
Exp (N=15)	11.40	11.69	12.33	11.67	.74
Group III					
Control (N=10)	10.90	1.88	9.80	4.40	1.39
Exp (N=14)	12.43	4.72	13.86	1.98	2.06
Group IV					
Control (N=6)	11.83	4.16	9.83	26.97	.88
Exp (N=9)	13.22	1.69	14.44	1.02	2.22
Group V					
Control (N=7)	9.71	4.90	10.71	1.90	1.01
Exp (N=12)	9.25	10.20	10.91	5.36	1.45

* Significant at .05 level.

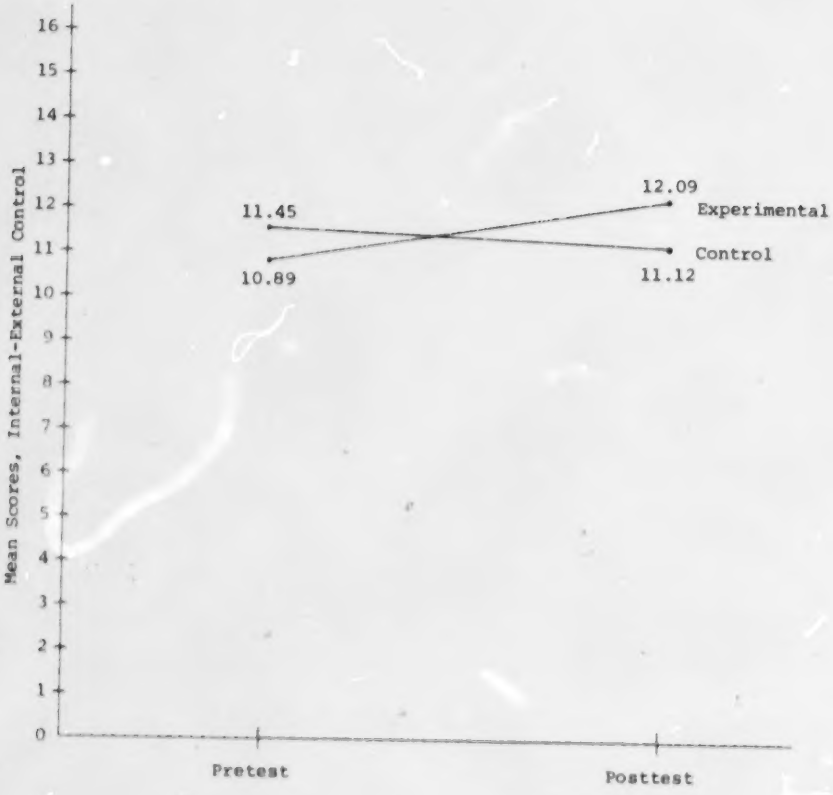

Figure 8. Internal-external control mean scores pretest and post-test for experimental and control groups (N = 111)

One experimental location group (group IV) showed a significant increase in personal control. Control groups and other experimental groups showed no significant change.

In terms of political control, the overall experimental group showed a significant change from pretest to posttest. Significant changes were noted also in experimental location groups III and IV.

The greatest impact of the workshops on internal-external control seemed to occur within the political control dimension.

Hypothesis VI was rejected.

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

Purpose

The primary purpose of this study was to determine whether participation in a series of workshops on "citizen participation in civic affairs" could influence significantly locus of control, life satisfaction and anomia among the aged population in the Piedmont region of North Carolina. A secondary purpose was to determine the extent to which certain personal and situational characteristics of respondents were associated with feelings of locus of control, life satisfaction and anomia.

Specifically, this study was designed to treat three primary questions:

1. What is the level of personal feelings of anomia, life satisfaction and locus of control among the subjects chosen for the study?
2. What personal and demographic factors are associated with the current level of feelings of anomia, life satisfaction and locus of control among the subjects in the study?
3. Can feelings of anomia, life satisfaction and locus of control be changed in a positive direction through a series of structured learning experiences which seek to involve the participants in decision-making efforts in the workshop and stimulate active participation in their communities and within their age-cohort groups?

A review of the literature and the theorized relationships based upon activity, exchange and social reconstruction theories provided

basically sound justification for making certain predictions relating to the above questions. These predictions were:

1. Participants' pretest levels of anomia, life satisfaction and internal-external control will be influenced by the level of active involvement in a variety of activities as well as certain demographic realities such as housing, income, health, etc.
2. There will be an increase in life satisfaction and internal control and a decrease in anomia among the participants in the workshop and no change in life satisfaction, internal-external control and anomia among non-participants.

Background and Need for the Study

The feelings of loneliness, powerlessness, and isolation are perhaps three of the major factors contributing to dissatisfaction with later life for thousands of Americans. The results are depression, anxiety and anomia for many. There exists a tremendous need for educational programs to help older adults cope with the social-psychological problems of aging.

This study was designed not only to determine relationships between personal and demographic variables and respondents' current social-psychological frame of mind, but to determine the impact of a series of workshops upon this frame of mind.

Research Procedures

This study utilized the pretest-treatment-posttest design. The sample consisted of 111 individuals 60 years of age or older residing in the Piedmont region of North Carolina. The sample was drawn from organized groups and clusters of older adults within the region. An effort was

made to ensure representativeness in terms of income, education, race, socioeconomic status and living arrangements. Participation was voluntary.

Five workshops of seven one-and-one-half to two-hour sessions were held. Six groups served as controls. The subject matter chosen for the workshops was a packaged program entitled "Action Course in Practical Politics" prepared by the United States Chamber of Commerce. The workshops were conducted by the researchers and three leaders trained by the researchers.

Pretests and posttests were administered to the experimental and control groups. Tested and validated scales were used to measure levels of anomia, life satisfaction and locus of control prior to and following the workshops.

The major statistical techniques employed were Pearson's Product Moment Coefficient of Correlation, least squares means analysis and the t test. The .05 level of significance was used throughout the study.

Results and Conclusions

Relationships Between Respondent Characteristics and Pretest Level of Anomia

Undergirding this research study were the notions that older individuals are often thrust into social systemic environments not conducive for a full and creative adaptation process. Anomia as a dimension of psychological well-being is related to feelings that individuals are isolated from themselves and the social system and hence become lonely, hopeless and despairing.

The results from this study indicated support for the position that anomia is pervasive in those people who have little awareness of their

social environment, their capabilities to interact powerfully in that environment and little willingness to participate in activities designed to enhance feelings of involvement and belonging. The correlation analysis showed significant negative relationships between anomia and many control relevant variables, especially knowledge and participation. The least squares means analysis showed that the variables in the model accounted for much of the variance in the anomia score. Age, especially 65-69, proved to be a significant predictor of anomia such that recently retired people tended to be more anomic than non-retired people or those over 70. Only a small number of people in this sample were still working. The fact that those forced to retire had lower anomia scores might reflect the notion that other variables affected the anomia score of those who retired voluntarily, i.e. health, loss of kin, etc.

Also a significant predictor of low anomia was the I-E score. This finding is consistent with the literature of alienation and anomia that points out the importance of perceiving the value of and capacity to expect successful outcomes and take steps to achieve those rewards. Social learning theory leads one to believe that only as one perceives generalized expectancies for control can one actively pursue behavioral alternatives enhancing the desired outcome. According to social learning theory, if the anomic person lacks internality, as this study indicates, he most likely will not seek a learning situation designed to change his perceptions. The fact, however, that a number of anomic people participated in these workshops is a positive retort to the notion that externally motivated, alienated and anomic people will not seek action to ameliorate their situation.

Another important conclusion was that the aged are a heterogeneous group of individuals whose anomia scores form no broad significant pattern. The curvilinearity of the results with most of the independent variables supports the notion of diversity.

That race, income, and education were significantly related to anomia seems to support the theoretical notions which speak of the relationship of the generalized expectancies for integration that are reflective of one's desire for and access to goal achievement. The correlation analysis indicated that nonwhites had higher anomia scores, which would follow the theoretical literature. However, the predicted means in this study showed that nonwhites were less anomic than whites. In essence, the diversity between groups in the sample and within the variables themselves tend to confound any generalizations that might be made.

Hence, in conclusion, it seems that any prediction from demographic variables would be presumptuous. Rather it can be more reasonably stated that the strong correlations of education, knowledge, participation and the predictive value of one's I-E score indicate an important pattern supporting notions of social learning theory. This pattern is further support for the schema outlined in Chapter 2 of this study, i.e. the input of educational programming for enhancing feelings of internal control in late life is a means for increasing awareness and strengthening skills for more positive adaptation.

Relationships Between Respondent Characteristics and Pretest Level of Life Satisfaction

The hypothesis that there was no relationship between life satisfaction and many personal characteristics was rejected even though not one variable proved to be a significant predictor of life satisfaction

scores. As stated in the review of literature, life satisfaction is a multidimensional construct synonymous with psychological well-being. Because of its multidimensionality, the effort in this study to unidimensionalize the construct proved less than satisfactory.

However, significant correlational relationships were found similar to those in anomia and internal-external control. In addition to being highly related to each other, a number of common variables emerged as important in understanding relationships: political knowledge, income, political participation, organizational activities, housing, education and health.

These variables were all significantly related to each other and formed a consistent set of important relationships to life satisfaction. This set of relationships is supportive of the activity theory notions that speak of well-being as related to amounts of social participation and continued activity in late life. All the activity variables were significantly related to each other indicating that those who are active in organizational activities tend to be active also in political, educational and leisure activities. Related to these activity variables, the demographic variables of housing, age, marital status, education, income, and health were significantly related to at least one of the other variables. Indeed, organizational activities were strongly related to housing ($r = -.35$), age ($r = -.25$), and education ($r = .22$). Political activities were strongly related to housing ($r = -.43$), age ($r = -.19$), marital status ($r = -.23$), education ($r = .55$), income ($r = .55$) and health ($r = -.24$). Educational activity was strongly related to housing ($r = -.28$), marital status ($r = -.21$), and age ($r = -.21$). Leisure activities were strongly related to age ($r = -.32$) and education ($r = .21$). Interestingly,

health, race, religion, occupation, and sex were not significantly related to levels of activity.

In summarizing it is important again to note the interrelationship of the dependent variables and, in turn, the meaning of these relationships as they support the activity theory and the literature related to life satisfaction. As stated in the literature, it is the components of everyday life that constitute measures of life satisfaction. The variables of health, housing, and activities are therefore consistently related to life satisfaction. In addition, the social-psychological variables, anomia and internal-external locus of control, were significantly related to life satisfaction which indicates the importance of perceived belonging and personal efficacy in assessing one's life satisfaction.

Relationships Between Respondent Characteristics and Pretest Level of Internal-External Control

As discussed in the preceding data analysis section and in the conceptual framework, it was the intention of this study to measure levels of internal-external control and attempt to enhance feelings of internality in the participants in the workshop group. It can be stated that this positive goal was achieved with many interesting relationships.

The Pearson product moment correlations showed strong relationships between income, education, health, political knowledge and activity levels and measures of I-E. Just as in the correlational analysis of life satisfaction and anomia, those variables continued to hold their strength of correlation with I-E. Indeed, I-E was more consistently related to the activity levels than either of the other two dependent variables. These relationships, while not predictive of certain behaviors, did show

directionality such that the researchers can say that the higher one's level of I-E, the higher one's level of activity and life satisfaction. It could also be said that the higher one's level of education, income and self-rated health, the higher one's score on the I-E scale.

The least squares means analysis showed a number of variables to be significant in predicting I-E scores. When controlled for the effects of the other variables, one's anomia score proved to be the most significant predictor of I-E scores such that as one became more eunomic, one had higher levels of internal control. As discussed earlier, this was certainly consistent with research showing the impact of belonging, satisfaction and feelings of access to goal substitution as related to measures of internal control.

Also found to be significant were the variables housing and whether or not one was forced to retire. Housing was not significantly correlated with I-E; but in the regression, housing showed its strength as important in a person's perception of control over his/her environment such that those persons who were not institutionalized showed significantly more internality than those in the nursing home settings. This is consistent with Wolk and Kurtz' (1975) research as well as that by Felton and Kahana (1974) which showed the impact of situational constraints upon levels of internality.

The researchers were surprised by one of the predictor variables--forced retirement. It was expected that those who were forced to retire would score lower on internality than those who voluntarily retired. For this sample, however, the opposite was true.

The researchers offer no other explanation for this surprise relationship except that the group differences and effects had much impact on the overall I-E measure, i.e. the differences between sample groups

accounted for much of the variance in forced retirement measures. Separate group regressions were not analyzed so a more complete explanation cannot be offered.

When analyzing the four dimensions of I-E studied in this project, it appeared that personal control and political control were the strongest dimensions for this sample. Control ideology was significantly related to political knowledge, being female, and education, as well as anomia, life satisfaction and, of course, the total I-E scale ($r = .75$). Interpersonal control was related to political activity, political knowledge, education, health, job prior to retirement and the three dependent variables, especially I-E ($r = .56$). The personal control dimension was significantly related to each of the activity variables: political knowledge, education, income, and the dependent variables--especially I-E ($r = .85$). Political control was significantly related to each of the activity variables, education, income, and the dependent variables, especially I-E ($r = .61$). These dimensions were not examined in the least squares analysis, but further research could explore the strength of particular dimensions and old age.

Hence, for the variable I-E, there were a number of variables which were strongly correlated with each other. As in the variables, anomia and life satisfaction, the activity variables were strong as well as political knowledge, housing, education and income. These variables are indicators of control relevant behavior and for purposes of this study, the fact that they were so strongly related to internality is evidence of the need to provide more options and activities for older adults and to give them new educational skills with which to make more knowledgeable decisions.

The Influence of the Workshop Series on Feelings of Anomia

It was anticipated that there would be a significant decrease in anomia among the workshop participants following the workshops and that there would be no change in the anomia levels of non-participants. Analysis of the data revealed that there was a slight decrease in anomia among workshop participants but the difference between pretest and posttest anomia scores was not significant at the .05 level. What was not anticipated was the increase in anomia within the control group. One location group registered a significant increase in anomia.

Perhaps the most logical explanation for the lack of a significant decrease in anomia within the experimental group was the limited time period for the workshops (seven one-and-one-half-to-two-hour sessions). Attitudes acquired over a long period of time are not changed easily. Also the content of the workshops addressed the ideas imbedded in the anomia scale only indirectly. A more deliberate attempt to dispel the myths surrounding the anomia syndrome might have produced different results.

It seems hardly reasonable to expect that the control groups will continue to become more and more anomic over time. There must be a "ceiling" at some point in time. A possible explanation of the increase in anomia within the control groups during the period of the study might, in fact, have been a reaction to being asked to complete the posttest (an activity which required time and effort and offered little gratification to the respondent).

The Influence of the Workshops on Feelings of Life Satisfaction

Conclusions relating to changes in life satisfaction did not support the conceptual framework established for the study. Although participants in the workshops showed a slight increase in life satisfaction, the differences between pretest and posttest life satisfaction scores were not significant at the level chosen for rejecting the hypotheses. The non-participants registered a decrease in life satisfaction. The explanations given for the nonsignificant decrease in anomia could be applied to the lack of a significant increase in life satisfaction for the workshop participants. The slight decrease in life satisfaction among the non-participants might be explained in part by the same rationale used above to explain the increase in anomia among the control groups. It was concluded that the workshops were ineffective in influencing a significant increase in life satisfaction among the participants in this study.

The Influence of the Workshops on Feelings of Internal-External Control

Conclusions relating to internal-external control (I-E) did support the conceptual framework developed for the study. There was a significant increase in internal control within the experimental group and slight, but non-significant decrease within the control group.

Internal control is defined as the perception of one's own actions and thereby under personal control, whereas external control is defined as the perception of positive and/or negative events as being unrelated to one's own behavior and therefore beyond personal control (Peters, 1968).

An examination of the subdimensions of the I-E scale revealed that one experimental location group showed a significant increase in control

ideology. One experimental location group showed a significant increase in personal control and the larger experimental group along with the two experimental location groups showed significant increases in political control. There were no significant changes within the control groups.

The workshops were focused upon the citizen's role in public affairs and the content dealt with the basic idea that the individual can have an impact on the governmental process. This fact may account for the significant increase in internal control and in the subdimensions of political control among the workshop participants. It was concluded that the workshops did have a positive influence on workshop participants' level of internal-external control.

IMPLICATIONS

The findings of this study provide a number of important implications for individuals, agencies and organizations concerned with education for/about older adults. The major focus of this study was to provide information skills and techniques relevant to enhancing levels of internal control in older adults. It was thought that if older individuals could increase their levels of competence in areas of concern relevant to decision-making in their social environment, they could begin to regain more self-confidence and self-esteem as they continue to contribute to themselves and their community. With this renewed confidence and self-esteem, they would achieve higher levels of life satisfaction and regain a sense of belonging and hopefulness.

Evidence from this study shows that an educational experience designed to increase knowledge of the political process and provide an opportunity for interaction with peers can significantly enhance internal locus of control in older adults. The implication here is that such success in altering behavior patterns justifies the need for more educational programs for older adults which provide new options for growth and contributions to the community. Of further importance is that changes occurred in people from a variety of housing situations and in people from diverse backgrounds. Also, the myth relating to the difficulties for older adults to alter behavior patterns seems to be rebuked with evidence from this study. Indeed, in a relatively short period of time (seven weeks), significant changes were made in perceptions of people about their expectancies for success and capacity to feel powerful in the outcomes relevant to their lives.

The findings of this study should provide a challenge to educational programmers and service providers to take a proactive position in designing new opportunities for their older clients. Oftentimes, programs are designed only to meet immediate coping concerns, i.e. diet, health, physical fitness, etc. While these are very important, the success of this study points to the value of providing a process by which older people can gain stronger long-term knowledgeable involvement in the community. With such new or renewed strength of commitment and contribution, the old labels of useless, incompetent and sick can be changed to vital, important and influential.

The findings of this study should contribute to the body of knowledge relating to continuing education for the older adult. The social reconstruction model used in the study would seem to be an appropriate one for exploring the impact of planned educational activities upon internal-external control.

The fact that significant changes did occur in internal-external control among participants in the workshops would indicate that internal-external control is not a fully structured product of past experiences and present circumstances. It can be changed. Similarly, it may be possible to effect significant positive changes in anomia and life satisfaction among older adults if deliberate efforts are made to address the underlying causes within the framework of the learning situation and sufficient time is made available for change to occur.

RECOMMENDATIONS FOR FURTHER RESEARCH

This study involved only a small selected segment of the aged population in the State of North Carolina. It is suggested that additional empirical studies be conducted to verify the findings and conclusions reached.

An effort should be made to develop a variety of educational activities for/with older adults and measure the influence of these activities on such social-psychological variables as locus of control, life satisfaction, anomia, morale, etc.

In future studies, it is recommended that consideration be given to alternative approaches to data analysis. Step-wise multiple regression might conceivably provide more insight into the amount of variance in locus of control, life satisfaction and anomia that can be attributed to specific independent variables.

In studies similar to the one reported here, it would be interesting to know the degree to which the workshop leader (teacher) influences changes in feelings of well-being. It would be interesting also to examine the effects of interaction patterns and the effects of the group itself upon such changes.

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APPENDICES

Appendix A. Appendix Tables

Appendix Table 1. Frequency distribution of respondents' participation in organizations by number and percent (N = 111)

Organizations	N	%*
Men's/Women's clubs	32	29
Political clubs	5	5
Civic clubs	19	17
Church	100	90
Sports clubs	9	8
Senior citizen clubs	58	52
Veterans clubs	2	2
Farm organizations	4	4
Professional or academic organizations	17	15
Other	12	11

*Percentages total over 100 due to multiple responses.

Appendix Table 2. Frequency distribution of respondents by level of organizational participation by number and percent (N = 111)

Level of Organizational Participation*	N	%
High	16	14
Medium	61	55
Low	31	28
None	3	3
Total	111	100

*High, more than three organizations; medium, 2 or 3 organizations; low, 1 organization; none, no organizations.

Appendix Table 3. Frequency distribution of respondents' participation in educational activities during the past year by number and percent (N = 111)

Educational Activity	N	%*
Self-planned learning projects	38	34
Job skills	6	5
Hobbies and recreation	38	34
Religion, morals, ethics	52	47
General education (history, art, math, etc.)	33	30
Home and family life	16	14
Personal development	30	27
Current events, public affairs, etc.	31	28
Agriculture	2	2

*Percentages total over 100 due to multiple responses.

Appendix Table 4. Frequency distribution of respondents by level of educational activity, number and percent (N = 111)

Level of Educational Activity*	N	%
High activity	15	13
Medium activity	43	39
Low activity	25	23
No activity	28	25
Total	111	100

*High, more than three activities; medium, two to three activities; low, one activity; no activity, 0 activities.

Appendix Table 5. Frequency distribution of respondents' participation in leisure activities by number and percent (N = 111)

Leisure Activities	N	%*
Play bridge or chess	25	23
Bowl, golf or plan tennis	8	7
Dance	11	10
Play musical instrument	6	5
Write stories, essays, plays	6	5
Attend issues oriented lectures or discussions	33	30
Participate in organized learning situations	39	35
Read books for pleasure	74	67
Travel	42	38
Visit art museums and galleries	23	21
Attend music or dance concerts	40	36
Visit regularly with friends	76	68
Play games--monopoly, bingo, checkers, etc.	42	38
Talk with friends on telephone	91	82
Read newspapers or magazines	93	84
Watch television	101	91
Compose music	1	1
Paint, draw or sculpt	17	15
Just be alone	59	53
Work as a volunteer	49	44
Tutor children	5	5
Work on hobbies or crafts	40	36
Do housekeeping or cooking	74	67
Sit in the sun	37	33
Attend sporting events	19	17
Other	12	11

*Percentages total over 100 due to multiple responses.

Appendix Table 6. Frequency distribution of respondents by level of leisure activity participation, number and percent (N = 111)

Level of Leisure Activity*	N	%
High	49	44
Medium	54	49
Low	8	7
Total	111	100

*High, more than nine activities; medium, six to eight activities; low, five or fewer activities.

Appendix Table 7. Frequency distribution of respondents by occupation prior to retirement by number and percent (N = 111)

Occupation Prior to Retirement	N	%
Professional	31	28
Manager	8	7
Clerical	15	13
Operative	15	13
Service	19	17
Housewife	13	12
No response	10	10
Total	111	100

Appendix Table 8. Frequency distribution of respondents' participation in political activities during the past two years by number and percent (N = 111)

Political Activities	N	%
Given a political speech	10	9
Attended a political dinner	21	19
Permitted name to be used in mass media	21	19
Attempted to convince people to vote for a candidate or issue	39	35
Mentioned preference for candidate in conversations	52	47
Made financial contributions to party or candidate	29	26
Done political chores during election campaign	18	16
Voted	71	64
Joined a political party	14	13
Attended meeting of a political party	18	16
Became a member of a political party	7	6
Been a candidate for office	2	2
Written letters to legislators or newspapers	31	28
Signed a petition	24	22
Read one or more books about politics	19	17
None	17	6

Appendix Table 9. Frequency distribution of respondents by level of political activity, number and percent (N = 111)

Level of Political Activity*	N	%
High	10	9
Medium	29	26
Low	38	35
Voting Specialist	17	15
None	17	15
Total	111	100

*High, more than eight activities; medium, four to eight activities; low, two to three activities; voting specialist, only activity is voting; none, no political activity.

Appendix Table 10. Frequency distribution of responses to questions related to political knowledge by number and percent (N = 111)

Political Knowledge Question	Response			
	Yes		No	
	N	%	N	%
Do you know how your city government is organized?	48	43	63	57
Do you know the name of the Director of the N. C. Division on Aging?	18	16	93	84
Do you know the name of the Director of your county Council on Aging?	26	23	85	77
Do you know what "Carolina Action" is?	26	23	85	77
Do you know the names of your county commissioners?	32	29	79	71
Do you know the name of the precinct leader of your political party?	20	18	91	82
Do you know the names of your local representatives on the N. C. State Assembly?	38	34	73	67
Do you know the names of your N. C. U. S. Senators and Congressmen?	53	48	58	52

*Percentages total over 100 due to multiple responses.

Appendix Table 11. Mean scores "control ideology", pretest, posttest, variance and t values by experimental and control groups

	Control Ideology				
	Pretest		Posttest		
Group	$\bar{Y}$	Var	$\bar{Y}$	Var	t
Total Group					
Control (N=48)	3.67	.35	3.50	.89	NS
Exp (N=63)	3.25	1.06	3.54	.83	NS
Group I					
Control (N=5)	2.80	.70	2.00	1.00	NS
Exp (N=13)	2.69	1.06	3.15	1.14	NS
Group II					
Control (N=10)	3.90	.10	3.80	.40	NS
Exp (N=11)	3.26	1.35	3.53	1.12	NS
Group III					
Control (N=10)	3.50	.50	3.80	.17	NS
Exp (N=14)	3.50	.26	3.92	.07	2.80*
Group IV					
Control (N=6)	3.83	.17	3.00	2.80	NS
Exp (N=9)	4.00	.00	4.00	.00	NS
Group V					
Control (N=7)	3.86	.14	3.57	.28	NS
Exp (N=12)	3.00	1.82	3.17	1.24	NS

*Significant at .05 level.

Appendix Table 12. Mean scores "personal control", pretest, posttest, variance and t values by experimental and control groups

	Personal Control				
	Pretest		Posttest		
Group	$\bar{Y}$	Var	$\bar{Y}$	Var	t
Total Group					
Control (N=48)	4.15	1.19	4.0	1.65	NS
Exp (N=63)	3.76	1.89	4.21	1.55	NS
Group I					
Control (N=5)	3.00	2.00	2.40	.80	NS
Exp (N=13)	2.69	1.40	3.00	2.00	NS
Group II					
Control (N=10)	4.70	.90	4.80	.40	NS
Exp (N=15)	4.13	1.84	4.40	2.11	NS
Group III					
Control (N=10)	4.00	.67	3.50	1.17	NS
Exp (N=14)	4.43	.26	4.57	.71	NS
Group IV					
Control (N=6)	4.50	.70	3.50	4.30	NS
Exp (N=9)	4.67	.25	4.78	.19	NS
Group V					
Control (N=7)	3.86	2.14	4.00	1.33	NS
Exp (N=12)	3.00	2.90	4.42	.63	2.61*

*Significant at .05 level.

Appendix Table 13. Mean scores "political control", pretest, posttest, variance and t values by experimental and control groups

	Political Control				
	Pretest		Posttest		
Group	$\bar{Y}$	Var	$\bar{Y}$	Var	t
Total Group					
Control (N=48)	1.50	1.02	1.66	1.12	NS
Exp (N=63)	1.81	.93	2.17	1.11	2.00*
Group I					
Control (N=5)	1.20	1.20	1.60	1.30	NS
Exp (N=13)	1.31	.56	1.69	.90	NS
Group II					
Control (N=10)	2.10	.99	2.10	.77	NS
Exp (N=15)	1.93	1.35	2.13	1.55	NS
Group III					
Control (N=10)	.90	.54	1.20	1.07	NS
Exp (N=14)	2.14	.90	2.78	.18	2.31*
Group IV					
Control (N=6)	1.67	1.47	1.50	1.90	NS
Exp (N=9)	1.89	1.11	2.89	.11	2.77*
Group V					
Control (N=7)	.86	.14	1.29	.90	NS
Exp (N=12)	1.75	.56	1.50	1.36	NS

*Significant at .05 level.

Appendix B. Data Gathering Instrument

TELEPHONE NUMBER_____ 123_____

FOR THE FOLLOWING QUESTIONS PLEASE CHECK ✓ THE APPROPRIATE RESPONSES.
WE THANK YOU FOR YOUR PARTICIPATION.

DO YOU GO TO ANY OF THE FOLLOWING AT LEAST ONCE A MONTH?

___ 4. MEN'S/WOMEN'S CLUBS
___ 5. POLITICAL CLUBS
___ 6. CIVIC CLUBS
___ 7. CHURCH
___ 8. SPORTS CLUBS
___ 9. SENIOR CITIZEN CLUBS
___ 10. VETERANS MEETINGS
___ 11. FARM ORGANIZATION'S MEETINGS
___ 12. PROFESSIONAL OR ACADEMIC ORGANIZATIONS
___ 13. OTHER (PLEASE LIST) _____
_____

DO YOU DO ANY OF THE FOLLOWING AT LEAST ONCE A MONTH?

___ 14. PLAY BRIDGE OR CHESS
___ 15. BOWL, GOLF, OR PLAY TENNIS
___ 16. DANCE
___ 17. PLAY A MUSICAL INSTRUMENT
___ 18. WRITE SHORT STORIES, NOVELS OR ESSAYS
___ 19. ATTEND ISSUES-ORIENTED DISCUSSIONS/ LECTURES
___ 20. PARTICIPATE IN ORGANIZED LEARNING SITUATIONS
___ 21. READ BOOKS FOR PLEASURE
___ 22. TRAVEL
___ 23. GO TO ART MUSEUMS AND GALLERIES
___ 24. ATTEND MUSIC OR DANCE CONCERTS
___ 25. VISIT REGULARLY WITH FRIENDS
___ 26. PLAY GAMES - MONOPOLY, BINGO, CHECKERS, ETC.
___ 27. TALK WITH FRIENDS ON THE TELEPHONE
___ 28. READ NEWSPAPERS OR MAGAZINES
___ 29. WATCH TELEVISION
___ 30. COMPOSE MUSIC
___ 31. PAINT, DRAW, OR SCULPT
___ 32. JUST BE ALONE
___ 33. WORK AS A VOLUNTEER
___ 34. TUTOR CHILDREN
___ 35. WORK ON HOBBIES OR CRAFTS
___ 36. DO HOUSEKEEPING AND COOKING
___ 37. SIT IN THE SUN
___ 38. ATTEND SPORTING EVENTS
___ 39. OTHER (PLEASE LIST)_____
_____

40. IN WHAT KIND OF HOUSING DO YOU LIVE?

1. IN A RETIREMENT COMPLEX ___
2. IN MY OWN HOME ___
3. IN MY CHILDREN'S HOME ___
4. IN A FRIEND'S HOME ___
5. IN A NURSING HOME ___
6. OTHER (PLEASE DESCRIBE) ___

_____

41. WHAT IS YOUR MARITAL STATUS?

1. MARRIED ___
2. NEVER MARRIED ___
3. WIDOWED ___
4. DIVORCED ___
5. SEPARATED ___

42. HOW OLD ARE YOU?

1. BELOW 60 ___
2. 60 - 64 ___
3. 65 - 69 ___
4. 70 - 74 ___
5. 75 - 79 ___
6. 80 - 84 ___
7. 85 - 90 ___
8. OVER 90 ___

43. WHAT IS YOUR SEX?

1. FEMALE ___
2. MALE ___

44. PLEASE CHECK THE HIGHEST LEVEL YOU REACHED IN SCHOOL.

1. ___LESS THAN 4TH GRADE
2. ___5TH TO 8TH GRADE
3. ___9TH TO 11TH GRADE
4. ___HIGH SCHOOL DIPLOMA
5. ___2 YEARS OF COLLEGE
6. ___4 YEARS OF COLLEGE
7. ___MASTERS DEGREE
8. ___DOCTORAL DEGREE
9. ___POST DOCTORAL STUDY

45. WHAT IS YOUR PRESENT LEVEL OF FAMILY INCOME?

1. BELOW $1,000 ___
2. $ 1,000 - $ 2,999 ___
3. $ 3,000 - $ 5,999 ___
4. $ 6,000 - $ 8,999 ___
5. $ 9,000 - $11,999 ___
6. $12,000 - $14,999 ___
7. $15,000 - $19,999 ___
8. OVER $20,000

46. WHAT IS YOUR RACE?

1. WHITE ___
2. BLACK ___
3. AMERICAN INDIAN ___
4. ORIENTAL ___
5. OTHER ___

47. WHAT IS YOUR RELIGION?

1. METHODIST ___
2. BAPTIST ___
3. PRESBYTERIAN ___
4. EPISCOPAL ___
5. OTHER PROTESTANT ___
6. JEWISH ___
7. CATHOLIC ___
8. OTHER ___
9. NONE ___

48. HOW DO YOU RATE YOUR OVERALL HEALTH IN COMPARISON TO OTHERS YOUR AGE?

1. EXCELLENT ___
2. GOOD ___
3. FAIR ___
4. POOR ___

49. WHAT IS YOUR PRESENT JOB OR ARE YOU RETIRED? _____

IF YOU ARE RETIRED:

50. WHAT WAS YOUR JOB BEFORE RETIREMENT? _____

	YES	NO
51. WERE YOU FORCED TO RETIRE?	___	___
52. WOULD YOU LIKE TO STILL BE WORKING?	___	___
53. ARE YOU SATISFIED NOT WORKING?	___	___

WHICH OF THE FOLLOWING EDUCATIONAL ACTIVITIES HAVE YOU TAKEN PART IN DURING THE PAST YEAR?

54. SELF-PLANNED LEARNING PROJECTS IN HOME, NEIGHBORHOOD, CHURCH, OR WORK ___

55. PROGRAMS RELATED TO JOB SKILLS ___

56. PROGRAMS RELATED TO HOBBIES AND RECREATION ___

57. PROGRAMS RELATED TO RELIGION, MORALS OR ETHICS ___

58. PROGRAMS RELATED TO GENERAL EDUCATION (HISTORY, MATH, SOCIOLOGY, ART HISTORY, ETC.). ___

59. PROGRAMS RELATED TO HOME AND FAMILY LIFE 155 ___

60. PROGRAMS RELATED TO PERSONAL DEVELOPMENT (PUBLIC SPEAKING, PHYSICAL FITNE ;, SPEED READING, COPING WITH AGING, ETC.). ___

61. PROGRAMS RELATED TO CURRENT EVENTS, PUBLIC AFFAIRS OR CITIZENSHIP ___

62. PROGRAMS RELATED TO AGRICULTURE ___

	YES	NO
63. HAVE YOU TAKEN A COURSE OR COURSES FOR CREDIT IN THE PAST YEAR?	___	___
64. ARE YOU REGISTERED TO VOTE?	___	___

HAVE YOU DONE ANY OF THE FOLLOWING WITHIN THE LAST TWO YEARS?

65. GIVEN A POLITICAL SPEECH	___	___
66. ATTENDED A POLITICAL DINNER	___	___
67. PERMITTED YOUR NAME TO BE USED IN THE NEWSPAPER OR THE RADIO	___	___
68. ATTEMPTED TO CONVINCE PEOPLE TO VOTE FOR A GIVEN CANDIDATE OR ISSUE	___	___
69. MENTIONED PREFERENCES FOR POLITICAL CANDIDATES IN CONVERSATIONS	___	___
70. GIVEN FINANCIAL CONTRIBUTIONS TO A PARTY OR CANDIDATE	___	___
71. DONE POLITICAL PARTY CHORES DURING AN ELECTION CAMPAIGN	___	___
72. VOTED	___	___
73. JOINED A POLITICAL PARTY	___	___
74. ATTENDED ANY MEETINGS OF A POLITICAL PARTY	___	___
75. BECOME A MEMBER OF A POLITICAL PARTY COMMITTEE	___	___
76. BEEN A CANDIDATE FOR OFFICE	___	___
77. WRITTEN LETTERS TO LEGISLATORS OR NEWSPAPER EDITORS	___	___
78. SIGNED A PETITION	___	___
79. READ ONE OR MORE BOOKS ABOUT POLITICS	___	___
80. DECK NUMBER 1	___	___

HOW FAMILIAR ARE YOU WITH THE FOLLOWING FACTS?

	YES	NO
4. DO YOU KNOW HOW YOUR CITY GOVERNMENT IS ORGANIZED?	___	___
5. DO YOU KNOW THE NAME OF THE DIRECTOR OF THE NORTH CAROLINA DIVISION ON AGING?	___	___
6. DO YOU KNOW THE NAME OF THE DIRECTOR OF YOUR LOCAL COUNCIL ON AGING?	___	___

156

		YES	NO
7.	DO YOU KNOW WHAT "CAROLINA ACTION" IS?	___	___
8.	DO YOU KNOW THE NAME OF YOUR COUNTY COMMISSIONERS?	___	___
9.	DO YOU KNOW THE NAME OF THE PRECINCT LEADER OF YOUR POLITICAL PARTY?	___	___
10.	DO YOU KNOW THE NAMES OF YOUR LOCAL REPRESENTATIVES IN THE STATE ASSEMBLY?	___	___
11.	DO YOU KNOW THE NAMES OF YOUR NORTH CAROLINA U.S. SENATORS AND CONGRESSMAN?	___	___

FOR THE FOLLOWING QUESTIONS PLEASE CIRCLE THE APPROPRIATE NUMBER IN THE COLUMNS DESCRIBING HOW YOU FEEL REGARDING THE STATEMENT. THE CATEGORIES OF RESPONSE ARE AS FOLLOWS:

5 - STRONGLY AGREE
4 - AGREE
3 - UNDECIDED
2 - DISAGREE
1 - STRONGLY DISAGREE

		(CIRCLE ONE FOR EACH QUESTION)				
12.	IN SPITE OF WHAT SOME PEOPLE SAY, THE LOT OF THE AVERAGE MAN IS GETTING WORSE.	5	4	3	2	1
13.	IT'S HARDLY FAIR TO BRING CHILDREN INTO THE WORLD WITH THE WAY THINGS LOOK FOR THE FUTURE.	5	4	3	2	1
14.	NOWADAYS A PERSON HAS TO LIVE PRETTY MUCH FOR TODAY AND LET TOMORROW TAKE CARE OF ITSELF.	5	4	3	2	1
15.	THESE DAYS A PERSON DOESN'T REALLY KNOW WHO HE CAN COUNT ON.	5	4	3	2	1
16.	THERE IS LITTLE USE WRITING TO PUBLIC OFFICIALS BECAUSE OFTEN THEY AREN'T REALLY INTERESTED IN THE PROBLEMS OF THE AVERAGE MAN.	5	4	3	2	1

HERE ARE SOME STATEMENTS ABOUT LIFE IN GENERAL THAT PEOPLE FEEL DIFFERENTLY ABOUT. WOULD YOU READ EACH STATEMENT ON THE LIST, AND IF YOU AGREE WITH IT, PUT A CHECK MARK IN THE SPACE UNDER "AGREE". IF YOU DO NOT AGREE WITH A STATEMENT, PUT A CHECK MARK IN THE SPACE UNDER "DISAGREE". IF YOU ARE NOT SURE ONE WAY OR THE OTHER, PUT A CHECK MARK IN THE SPACE UNDER "?". PLEASE BE SURE TO ANSWER EVERY QUESTION ON THE LIST.

		AGREE	DISAGREE	?
17.	AS I GROW OLDER, THINGS SEEM BETTER THAN I THOUGHT THEY WOULD BE.	_____	_____	_____
18.	I HAVE GOTTEN MORE OF THE BREAKS IN LIFE THAN MOST OF THE PEOPLE I KNOW.	_____	_____	_____
19.	THIS IS THE DREARIEST TIME OF MY LIFE.	_____	_____	_____
20.	I AM JUST AS HAPPY AS WHEN I WAS YOUNGER	_____	_____	_____

	AGREE	DISAGREE	?
21. MY LIFE COULD BE HAPPIER THAN IT IS NOW.	____	____	____
22. THESE ARE THE BEST YEARS OF MY LIFE.	____	____	____
23. MOST OF THE THINGS I DO ARE BORING AND/OR MONOTONOUS.	____	____	____
24. I EXPECT SOME INTERESTING AND PLEASANT THINGS TO HAPPEN TO ME IN THE FUTURE.	____	____	____
25. THE THINGS I DO ARE AS INTERESTING AS THEY EVER WERE.	____	____	____
26. I FEEL OLD AND SOMEWHAT TIRED.	____	____	____
27. I FEEL MY AGE, BUT IT DOES NOT BOTHER ME.	____	____	____
28. AS I LOOK BACK ON MY LIFE, I AM FAIRLY WELL SATISFIED.	____	____	____
29. I WOULD NOT CHANGE MY PAST LIFE EVEN IF I COULD.	____	____	____
30. COMPARED TO OTHER PEOPLE MY AGE, I HAVE MADE A LOT OF FOOLISH DECISIONS IN MY LIFE.	____	____	____
31. COMPARED TO OTHER PEOPLE MY AGE, I MAKE A GOOD APPEARANCE.	____	____	____
32. I HAVE MADE PLANS FOR THINGS I WILL BE DOING A MONTH OR A YEAR FROM NOW.	____	____	____
33. WHEN I THINK BACK OVER MY LIFE, I DIDN'T GET MOST OF THE IMPORTANT THINGS I WANTED.	____	____	____
34. COMPARED TO OTHER PEOPLE, I GET DOWN IN THE DUMPS TOO OFTEN.	____	____	____
35. I'VE GOTTEN PRETTY MUCH WHAT I EXPECTED OUT OF LIFE.	____	____	____
36. IN SPITE OF WHAT PEOPLE SAY, THE LOT OF THE AVERAGE MAN IS GETTING WORSE, NOT BETTER.	____	____	____

PLEASE READ THE FOLLOWING QUESTIONS CAREFULLY. FOR EACH QUESTION PLACE A CHECK ✓ BESIDE EITHER THE "A" RESPONSE OR THE "B" RESPONSE, WHICHEVER IS CLOSEST TO THE WAY YOU FEEL.

37. MANY OF THE UNHAPPY THINGS IN PEOPLE'S LIVES ARE DUE TO
___ A. BAD LUCK
___ B. THE MISTAKES THEY MAKE.

38. BECOMING A SUCCESS DEPENDS ON
___ A. HARD WORK
___ B. BEING LUCKY

39. SOMETIMES PEOPLE DON'T LIKE YOU
___ A. NO MATTER HOW HARD YOU TRY
___ B. BECAUSE YOU DON'T UNDERSTAND HOW TO GET ALONG WITH THEM

40. WHEN A PERSON MAKES PLANS IT IS BEST
___ A. TO PLAN FAR AHEAD WITH THE IDEA OF BEING ABLE TO CARRY THEM OUT
___ B. NOT TO PLAN VERY FAR AHEAD BECAUSE MANY THINGS TURN OUT TO BE A MATTER OF GOOD OR BAD FORTUNE ANYHOW

41. POLITICAL CORRUPTION
___ A. CAN BE WIPED OUT IF WE TRY HARD ENOUGH
___ B. IS MAINLY BEYOND CONTROL

42. WHAT THE FUTURE HOLDS FOR ME DEPENDS UPON
___ A. MY BEING LUCKY
___ B. MY OWN DECISIONS IN TAKING A DEFINITE COURSE OF ACTION

43. THE CONTROL OF WORLD EVENTS
___ A. IS IN THE HANDS OF FORCES BEYOND OUR UNDERSTANDING OR CONTROL
___ B. CAN BE HAD BY ORDINARY PEOPLE TAKING AN ACTIVE PART IN POLITICAL AND SOCIAL AFFAIRS

44. WHO GETS TO BE THE BOSS OFTEN DEPENDS ON
___ A. BEING LUCKY
___ B. SOMETHING OTHER THAN BEING LUCKY

45. GETTING WHAT YOU WANT
___ A. HAS LITTLE OR NOTHING TO DO WITH BEING LUCKY
___ B. MAY AS WELL BE DECIDED BY JUST FLIPPING A COIN

46. PEOPLE ARE LONELY BECAUSE
___ A. THEY DON'T TRY TO BE FRIENDLY
___ B. NO MATTER HOW HARD THEY TRY TO PLEASE, PEOPLE MAY NOT LIKE THEM

47. THE DECISIONS MADE BY OUR GOVERNMENT
___ A. DEPEND UPON WHAT THE AVERAGE CITIZEN SAYS
___ B. ARE MADE BY FEW PEOPLE IN POWER AND THERE IS NOT MUCH THE LITTLE GUY CAN DO ABOUT IT

48. PEOPLE WHO FAIL TO BECOME GOOD LEADERS DO SO BECAUSE
___ A. THEY JUST DON'T GET THE RIGHT BREAKS
___ B. THEY FAIL TO TAKE ADVANTAGE OF THEIR OWN OPPORTUNITIES

49. WHETHER OR NOT A PERSON REALLY LIKES YOU
___ A. IS HARD TO TELL
___ B. DEPENDS ON HOW NICE A PERSON YOU ARE

50. THE THINGS THAT HAPPEN TO YOU IN LIFE
___ A. ARE DETERMINED MAINLY BY CHANCE AND LUCK
___ B. HAVE NOTHING TO DO WITH CHANCE AND LUCK

51. MOST PEOPLE'S LIVES ARE CONTROLLED
___ A. BY ACCIDENTAL HAPPENINGS
___ B. BY THEIR OWN ACTIONS

80. DECK NUMBER 2